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## MILITARY OPERATIONS IN AMERICA.

EIGHT or ten weeks will scarcely elapse before the season for campaigning in America will be closed. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that both parties to the civil war in that country are using gigantic efforts to make the most of this short period. Both sides have completed their preparations; they are now face to face; and the latest intelligence contains the results of the first great shock of arms.

The Northerners have divided their forces into two vast armies. It is true that various minor expeditions, such as those under Burnside and Sherman, and those against the coast of Florida and New Orleans, have been despatched to various points of the Southern seaboard; but these are subsidiary to the main operations under Generals Halleck and Grant in the West, and to those under Generals McClellan and McDowell in the East. In the West the object of the Federal commanders seems to be to push on Southward, to obtain possession of both banks of the Mississippi, and, if possible, to reach New Orleans. It is not proposed to hazard any opinion as to the prospects of Northern success in this enterprise. On the contrary, our present conviction, as it always has been, is, that the Federalists must fail in reconquering the South. But in order to understand the important military events which have occurred, it is necessary to have a clear view of the object which the Northerners propose to themselves. Now, in the West, the progress of the Federalists down the Mississippi was arrested at the spot where the boundary line of Kentucky and Tennessee touches that river. At that point the river makes a double bend, something in the form of  $\infty$ . As the waters sweep down southward they are suddenly arrested at the point where the island known as No. 10 stands in the broad and deep channel, at the middle of the right bend of the  $\infty$ . After this point the broad stream turns north-west for a few miles, and then, returning southward, and passing by New Madrid, flows on towards Memphis and New Orleans. At the bottom of this river loop, represented by the right hand, or eastern turn of the  $\infty$ , stands the island in question, which was strongly fortified and strongly garrisoned. The troops under General Pope, being on the Western bank of the Mississippi, could not make any impression upon the island, or prevent its being supplied with men and ammunition from the district on the eastern bank. In order to cut off these supplies it was necessary to get past the river obstruction. To do this by sailing past was impossible, and therefore it was determined to cut a canal of some twelve miles across the land represented by the right-hand space of the  $\infty$ . This was done. Thus General Pope managed to obtain boats, by which he conveyed his army to the eastern or Tennessee bank, in rear of the island, and so cut off all supplies. The result was that the commander of the island was compelled to surrender, and that 6,000 prisoners and 100 guns, besides three generals and a vast quantity of supplies, were captured. The importance of this victory consists in the fact that the Mississippi is now open, and that both the land forces and the gun-boats under Commodore Foote may descend the river until they meet with some other obstacle as formidable as that which they have just overcome. If the Federalists can reach Memphis, they will be within ninety-three miles of Corinth (called Farmington in the ordinary maps), which is the position selected by Beauregard to make a stand against the advancing armies of the North.

It may be remembered that about 130 miles east of the Mississippi

flows the Tennessee River. After a long course from east to west the Tennessee, just on the southern border of the state which bears the same name, turns northward, and ultimately falls into the Ohio. At this turn stands on its left, or western bank, Pittsburg, and nearly opposite, on the eastern bank, connected by a ferry, the town of Savannah. Pittsburg and Savannah, it may be observed, are some 20 miles north-east of Corinth. Now, after the taking of Fort Donnelson and Nashville, some weeks ago, both the Northern and the Southern commanders paused. The former, of whom the chief in active command was General Grant, began to collect all his troops for another attack upon the Southerners; whilst the latter, the chief of whom was Albert Sidney Johnstone, with Beauregard as his second, collected all their scattered troops, and concentrated them in an intrenched position near Corinth. Corinth is not only a position of great natural strength, but it is an important strategical point, standing as it does at the junction of the Mobile and Ohio and the Memphis and Charleston Railways. The position of Corinth is, in fact, the possession of the line of communication between east and west and between north and south. Corinth, therefore, was the point which the Confederates had to defend, and it was the point against which the Northerners were bound to direct their attack. According to the accounts, the Confederate army amounted to 60,000; whilst the Federal army, if collected together, would have been much larger. If the Confederates waited until Halleck and Grant had collected all their troops, the probabilities were that they would be overpowered by numbers. The duty, therefore, of the Confederates was obvious. They must defeat the enemy if possible in detail; and it so happened that an opportunity of doing this presented itself. Until the 7th of April a considerable number of troops were engaged in the siege of Island No. 10 more than a hundred miles up the river. The corps of General Buell was only making its way from Nashville towards Pittsburg. That officer was on the eastern bank of the Tennessee river, which was only crossed by boats. But General Grant, with some 38,000, having crossed to the western bank of that river, had placed himself at Pittsburgh, landing within a distance of eighteen miles from the 60,000 men under A. S. Johnstone and Beauregard. It was clear that if these officers could only succeed in bringing their overwhelming numbers to bear upon General Grant and his 38,000 men, the chances were that the Federalists would be driven into the river and destroyed, so that they would find it necessary to pause in order to re-organize a new army. Time being of vital importance, it is plain that if such an attack were successful, the object of the Confederates would be gained. Actuated probably by some such motives, the Confederates moved out from Corinth, and, after a rapid march, attacked General Grant with great vigour on Sunday morning, the 6th of April. At first the attack was completely successful; indeed it is tolerably clear that the Federalists were surprised. At all events they were in no condition to resist the onslaught, and even the artillery of the various divisions was not at hand. So far as can be gathered from the vague accounts which have reached us, the left of the Federalists rested upon the River Tennessee; the right was in an oblique and north-westerly direction. The general plan of the Confederates seems to have been to crush the left of the Federalists, and so utterly to destroy them by cutting off their retreat across the river. It would be idle to attempt to describe the phases of a battle which has only been described by the ecstatic pens of *New York Herald* reporters. But the fight lasted the whole day. In the



meantime, however, General Buell was bringing up his reinforcements, and before the next morning a considerable number of regiments had got across the Tennessee, and had taken the place of the exhausted troops. It is doubtful, however, whether even the reinforcements would have arrived in time had it not been that the progress of the Confederates on the left was arrested by the fire of the gun-boats, which poured a most destructive fire into the flank of the victorious columns. The result was that about 4 or 5 o'clock of Monday afternoon the enemy began to retire, and according to the latest accounts, they were retreating to their position at Corinth. The Federalists are certainly entitled to claim a victory; but it remains to be seen whether they will venture to attack the Confederates in their entrenchments. Time presses, and it may be doubted whether they would succeed in a direct assault, or whether, if an investment were resolved upon, there would be time, for the operations implied are tedious.

The position of things in the East is less intricate. After the retreat of the Confederates from Manassas it was found difficult, if not impossible, for the Federalists to pursue them, in consequence of the difficulty of the country, which had been ruined and desolated by the army in its retreat. It was, therefore, determined to transport the chief part of the army, consisting, it is said, of 150,000 men, to Fortress Monroe, under the personal command of M'Clellan. This fortress, seventy or eighty miles south-east of Richmond, is at the end of a tongue of land, which is only about five or six miles broad at the narrowest point, and is washed on the north by the York River and on the south by the James River. M'Clellan's army has commenced its march, and has advanced about twenty-four miles on its way to Richmond. The country, however, is at present flooded, and the roads are in bad order; whilst Yorktown, on the York river, is strongly fortified, and is occupied by an army of 30,000 men. Nor is this all; for, according to the latest accounts, the whole neck of land, which is not more than five miles broad, has been strongly fortified, and two of the best Generals in the Confederate service are said to be in command, General Lee and General J. Johnston. To carry these defences would be a most difficult, if not an impossible enterprise, except upon one supposition. The York river is still in possession of the Federalists, and unless the iron-clad *Merrimac* succeeds in destroying the Federal gunboats, General M'Clellan may be able to outflank the Confederates. At the same time, it must be observed, that Yorktown stands upon the York River bank, and unless it can be taken by the gunboats as a preliminary step, it will be difficult for Federal troops to pass it, inasmuch as its position is such as to interpose between the gun-boats and the Confederate flank; so that the Federalists, if they attempt to assault the intrenchments, will be assailed by the Yorktown batteries instead of being protected by their own gun-boats.

#### THE BRIGHTON REVIEW.

THE annual call to arms has been obeyed this year with more than usual ardour. The fact is a little surprising; and we might even have expected that on the present occasion some decrease of enthusiasm would have been shown. It is said, though not with truth, that the numbers of the Volunteer force are less than they were; the season, too, has been far from promising for open-air excursions upon chalk downs; and the leading journal, on Good Friday, declared in a most despondent article that everybody has been disappointed in everything, and no one now cares for anything, and it is no use minding what becomes of us. But if there is one ambition in the world which has not yet been extinguished in the breast of British fathers of families, it is that of looking well in uniform. Private and domestic life occupies, among the middle classes, so large a part of their thoughts and affections, that the sense of belonging to the State, of representing public interests, and joining in a national display, comes to many minds with all the vivid force of novelty. And whether war as a custom among nations be on the decline or not, the thoughts of Englishmen run now upon warlike resources and scenes of battle with far more readiness than was the case five years ago. In France, to obtain a substitute for the conscription is exactly twice as difficult as it was at the beginning of the peace; in England the number of men acquainted with the use of arms has probably doubled since the rifle movement began, and the police have to issue notices in the Crystal Palace to caution Volunteers against "marching about." At any rate, if numbers are a test of popularity, Volunteering is popular now. Eighteen thousand men have exposed themselves, in the rainiest of springs, to the chances of wind and weather, for a time varying from ten hours to twenty, for the mere sake of joining in a display which most considered useful, but which very few hoped to find agreeable. It happened, fortunately, that the day was fine, and, as a spectacle, the Review succeeded better than such things generally do in England. The excitement in the south-eastern counties was extreme; one would have thought all Sussex was collected in front of the Grand Stand at Brighton; and those few that did stay behind assembled on the railway bridges, and did their best to forward the work of national defence by cheering

the trains as they bore the riflemen along. Easter Monday was probably the best day that could have been chosen, and special attempts were cheerfully made to extend the holiday to all who could reasonably claim it. Sussex and Middlesex supplied, of course, the chief contingent; but at least four other counties were represented on the ground, and the spectators of the scene more than outnumbered the actors. In many of the surrounding towns, and even in Brighton itself, the Volunteer Review seemed to have shorn the offices and shops of their whole male population. It was not a time to cast up accounts, when England was summoning the flower of her manhood to present arms and fire cartridges before a G.C.B. and K.S.I. It is true, the grandeur of the occasion was not everywhere recognised by the closing of shops; but in Brighton, at all events, the day was given, without reservation, to the Review; and even where the shops were open the counters were desolate. An irrefragable instinct had declared that everything of a commercial character might, for that one day, be very well left to take care of itself; and it may be taken for granted that a universal determination on the part of the public to "hang business" is pretty nearly equivalent to an Order for its General Suspension.

The fortnight before Easter had been spent by most corps in vigorous preparation. The first difficulty in every case is to secure that the credit of the corps shall not suffer. In what way,—every commanding officer must have asked himself a hundred times,—in what way is it possible to prevent that one particular Volunteer from going who is so stout and conspicuous, and who cannot, under the severest pressure, recollect whether he is a right or left file? It always provokingly happens, that those very men who cannot learn the nature of "fours" are sure to be the most ardent in the cause of their country, and ready to submit to any privation, sooner than fail to present themselves at the post of duty. It does not do to tell a respectable gentleman that he drills badly, and the question is generally settled by his resolving at all hazards to be present. The preparations for the commissariat are not the least serious; though in this case the authorities wisely allowed an hour for breakfast on arrival at Brighton; and to see the "indomitable British infantry" making use of their opportunities was truly delightful. But some little experience in reviews has now taught most Volunteers some lessons with respect to a day's campaigning; and those who were starved one year, are not likely to neglect a suitable provision the next. The arrangements for the early part of the day were excellently devised, and were carried out with unusual punctuality. Each captain of a company knew exactly what route he was to take, and where his rendezvous was appointed; and as the chief benefit of such meetings as these consists in the opportunity they afford of detecting faults of arrangement and discipline, it is satisfactory to find that a method has at last been discovered, after many failures, of enabling troops to travel by the railway without either waiting two hours at the station beforehand, or becoming inextricably mixed together at the end. All were on the ground appointed for the actual parade soon after twelve o'clock. The various marchings and manoeuvres of the day it is not our part to chronicle; are they not written in the *Times*? How the troops formed on the White Hawk Down, in what one report of the day denominates "contiguous quarter columns,"—how they marched past the stand,—how they broke up into armies and cannonaded one another,—and how pretty the whole scene looked, is there reported in graphic detail. That no plan of the operations was made public previously to the day itself, was understood to be a delicate compliment to the intelligence of the Volunteers; implying that, after two years' drill, they might now be expected to execute simple orders without preliminary practice. The world only knew that if they stood on the hill where the Grand Stand is, there would be something for them to see, and they trustfully waited till the whole Down looked an enormous moving anthill. The place was admirably chosen; a sweep of grass rising steeply some five hundred feet from the valley, opposite the White Hawk Down, gave a theatre from which 30,000 people saw distinctly everything that passed. Some part, indeed, of the proceeding took place in a valley a little farther off; but the hill on which the enemy's cannon was supposed to be posted, was higher again, completely in sight of the racecourse, and the skirmishing went on chiefly on the sloping ground to the right, where the central Down did not interfere with the view. What pleased the world most was certainly the light infantry work, admirably executed by the City of London Corps; and when the skirmishers retired on their supports, formed squares, and fired a volley, Sussex agriculture could not repress its delight. "It be loik heaven, it be!" was the remark of one enthusiastic but simple-minded rustic, whose pipe actually went out with his emotion, on the side of the race-hill slope.

The chief difference between the appearance of Volunteers and Regulars is that the former always appear to think that some one is looking at them; and they do, for the most part, as they conceive that they are done by. "Eyes front" is a suggestion which they take as well meant, but wholly unsuitable. The professional soldier makes it his ambition to look as much like a machine as possible. No one ever saw a private at parade studying his commander's trowsers, or wondering

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whether it is going to rain. But, in the British Volunteer, military enthusiasm has not yet extinguished human curiosity. *Spectatum venient.* Wonder, in the opinion of Dr. Arnold, was the first step towards science; and the gallant irregulars habitually make a stride of it. They wonder whether they are going to march forward into that chalk-pit, or on the flank towards those turnips. They wonder whether Lord Clyde is the one with the long hair, or the one with the red beard; wonder whether there is to be any wheeling in column; wonder if the stout Volunteer in the centre thinks he is keeping step; wonder if the captain will tell them to "order arms" from the "slope;" wonder what they shall do if he does. We have read in books which describe battles, of sudden impulses—simultaneous instincts—seizing in a moment upon whole bodies of troops; and have often fruitlessly speculated what such things might mean. But the experience of Volunteering has explained it all. The electric speed with which the insulting communication about keeping in line is passed along to the over-impetuous file which is degrading the company in the eyes of men; the lively shout by which the pivot-men of the sections are reminded which is their right hand and which their left;—these are the springs which preserve the well-regulated corps from ruin. Such confidential and friendly intercourse is not, we believe, recommended distinctly either in the Green Book or the Red; and the Horse Guards are supposed to frown at it in the persons of the zealous among drill-sergeants. But there are more things in heaven and earth, and especially in the Volunteer service, than are dreamt of in their scrupulous philosophy. As in the "Femmes Savantes":—

"Quand on se fait entendre, on parle toujours bien;"

and if impulsive natures will forget that sections and subdivisions are not the same thing, it is but kind and obliging of their neighbours to remind them of the important difference. In the early days of Volunteering, a captain, when marching his company through the streets of London, is said to have wished to wheel at a certain corner, and to have forgotten, in the excitement of the moment, what he ought to say. "Company!" he ejaculated, "wheel-front-left-right"—then, as the corps went marching on, "Bless you!" he exclaimed, though in stronger language still,—"go up Regent-street!" Riflemen have improved since then, it is true, and the crack regiments emulate the regulars in professional solidity; but when a country corps can drill but seldom, and when some of its members drill more seldom than others, it is pardonable that precision of movement should sometimes be attained at the cost of undue animation in individuals, and that the official element in the orders should be, if not superseded, at all events supplemented, by the colloquial.

We remarked before that the chief use of such occasional reviews as that at Brighton is not solely in displaying to the world the excellence of the Volunteers, but still more in discovering to them their own defects. This particular review may well have served both ends. In the most simple manœuvres there were some corps which were almost perfect. Some of them executed the light-infantry work beautifully; and very few ramrods have, we learn, been found on the ground since Monday. On the whole, the movements were far more prompt than could have been expected; and there was an intelligence in the manner of obeying orders which went far to compensate for an occasional absence, here and there, of precision. The Inns of Court were among the best drilled corps on the ground; the South Middlesex and the Civil Service rivalled them in steadiness of march; in popular estimation, however, none of them could hope to excel the London Scottish, whose nakedness of legs seemed to possess an attraction for the public hardly, if at all, inferior to that of cocked hats. The lawyers managed everything with a kind of gallant flourish, and an apparent consciousness of strength, which had the air of a perpetual assertion that wheeling and counter-marching might be difficult to those corps which drilled twice a week, but came to barristers as naturally as their wigs. They certainly did their work very well; and a certain amount of display does not necessarily make a military movement worse. It seems almost ungracious to blame where there is so much to praise; but in two points of some importance hardly a single company was accurate. It may be from want of practice, or it may possibly be from the habit of constantly marching with a band; but it is certain that the time by which the pace was regulated was much at fault. Not only did brigades differ in quickness of step, and one corps took as much as five paces to another's four, but on the field the time was not consistent with itself for three minutes together. It is not important that Volunteers should move either particularly fast or particularly slow; but it is impossible to be sure of steadiness in a company when each man is left in habitual ignorance of what a quick step really means. The other chief defect observable was in taking up distance, though allowance must of course be made in this particular for the excitement and hurry of a field-day. Generally, the disposition to crowd was greater than the disposition to scatter. These are faults which it is impossible to rectify, and far from easy to discover, without the aid of some occasional parade such as that of Easter Monday; and if officers of Volunteers have used their opportunities well, they will have learnt much that may be useful for the summer drills. The criticisms of this year especially will not be

thrown away, if the force is again assembled in Hyde Park in the summer of 1863. If, as seems not impossible, a review in London should become a triennial festival for the Volunteers, coincident perhaps with the time for purchasing new uniforms, then spring meetings in the intermediate years will have the valuable effect of testing the progress made, and explaining the improvements needed for a more public and distinguished display. We are sanguine enough to hope that the improvement will still go on; meanwhile we have every reason to be well satisfied with the spectacle of this year's review.

#### MR. COBDEN'S THREE PANICS.

MR. COBDEN has established his right to be heard with patience and respect by every Englishman of this generation. He has a claim to speak even on the subject of war—a subject upon which his views are crotchety, and perhaps intolerable—for no man living has contributed more to the Peace of the world, and to the substantial defences of his country. He is the Author of Free Trade in England and in France: having stormed the prejudice of an English Parliament, and taken advantage of the enlightenment of a French Emperor. He is also the Author of the French treaty—a "pillar and guarantee" of European peace—in virtue of which an enormous reciprocal trade has, within the last year and a half, sprung up between the two great nations, tending largely to bind them for ever one to the other in the bands of quiet and good-will. Between the Manchester school and the educated classes there has grown up a great gulf, which has been increased by mutual narrowness of view upon both sides. Much has been thrown in the teeth of Mr. Cobden and his friends which should have been left unsaid. On the other hand, the world of Cotton has been slow to appreciate some of the excellences of the world of taste and education. Yet in reality the commercial and the educated classes have more interests in common than any other classes in this country. The divergence between them is factitious, and has been created by *dilettanti* politicians, whose antipathies have been larger than their sympathies, and whose intellectual power has been inferior to their undeniable refinement and sensibility.

We do not, therefore, propose to discuss Mr. Cobden's pamphlet on war-panics in the tone and temper of furious Semi-Liberals. We think it fortunate for the country that it has not followed all Mr. Cobden's mistaken counsels. But it is a happy thing for the country that Mr. Cobden lives amongst us to give us bad advice with respect to our naval estimates. The opprobrious and miserable taunt has often been levelled at him, that he prefers Cotton to national honour. Such language will, no doubt, still continue to be used of him and of his party by a set of men who have abolished no odious monopolies, and originated no French treaties—down whose throats every measure of reform has been forced that has benefited England for many years, and down whose throats other wise and beneficent measures, in years to come, will be driven as certainly and, we trust, as ruthlessly. Curiously enough the progress of the present American war has cleared from the charge of cottonising the very statesmen in England who have hitherto been compelled to labour under it; and has shown who are the true prophets of the great god Cotton. But while we absolve the Manchester school from unnatural indifference to England's safety, we still think—as we may think without insulting him—that Mr. Cobden is in the habit of taking too commercial a view of our international relations. Our French trade will never be, what Mr. Gladstone calls it—"a guarantee" of the peace of Europe. It is only a grand incentive to peace. Commercial connection makes wars rarer and shorter; but that is all. It was as much the French merchants as the armies of Europe who really overthrew Napoleon I.; but French and English merchants alike are liable to war-fevers and to war-panics in virtue of their common human nature. Mr. Cobden is right in believing that commerce is a strong antidote to war. Where he is wrong, is in assuming that the antidote will be almost universally efficacious.

The three Panics of 1847, 1852, and 1859, which he lumps rather contemptuously together, have nothing in common except the symptoms in which they displayed themselves. The first "Panic" of 1847 Mr. Cobden rightly connects with the publication of the famous letter of the Prince de Joinville. It was also one of the after-waves produced by the diplomatic difficulties of 1840. The Duke's letter on the national defences increased the agitation in this country. England was extensively, and perhaps unduly, disturbed. In 1846 and in 1847 the expenditure of our navy rose. There was an increase of money spent in wages in our dockyards. Four thousand extra seamen were called out. Everybody in this country knew that war was possible, and feared that if it came we were not thoroughly prepared. We do not endorse a great deal of the foolish language used at the time about French bad faith; but we cannot allow Mr. Cobden to take it for granted that the public feeling of 1847 was an ebullition of foolish terror. Let us see the facts. French statistics cannot, in spite of his protestations, be fully depended upon, so long as the French Government is irresponsible and does not submit to the constitutional control of a Representative Assembly. But assuming

their entire veracity,—they fail to prove Mr. Cobden's theory as to the movement which, with amusing scepticism, he tabulates as Panic I. :—

Years.	Expenditure of French navy.	Expenditure for wages in French dockyards.	Number of seamen in French navy.	Number of French vessels in commission.
1843	£3,624,929	£410,761	31,345	213
1844	3,888,121	358,271	30,240	219
1845	3,847,498	369,772	28,979	233
1846	4,507,427	436,243	33,970	243
1847	5,145,900	448,333	32,169	240

An inspection of this table will show that, even according to French returns, the expenditure of the French navy had been gradually increasing from the year 1843 to 1847. This was the time, indeed, during which the vast designs for extending the French dockyards were being carried out. The wages spent in them exhibit, on the whole, a similar though a less unbroken growth. In 1846 the number of seamen in the French navy was suddenly raised by 5,000 men to a level with what it had been in the middle of the excitement of 1840. We do not think Mr. Cobden is right in assuming that the number of seamen in any given year is the surest index of a Government's effective strength. That may, to some extent, be the case in England, where the "naval" estimates in general are regulated by the vote for men. The French Government, owing to the regulations of their fishing trade, have a perpetual reserve of trained seamen: an advantage which, till the last year or two, we have not possessed. The column, accordingly, which gives the number of seamen is not an adequate measure of what Mr. Cobden supposes. It is rather a thermometer of temporary excitement. We must go to the next column for the true measure of effective strength, and consequently of aggressive preparation. On consulting this it will be seen that France for many years had been steadily adding to the number of its ships in commission. In 1835 she had but 165. In 1846 the number had mounted to 243. "Since nobody now believes that the Citizen King ever contemplated a descent on our shores, it is a waste of time,"—says Mr. Cobden,—"to enter into lengthened details respecting the first Panic." He has a right to decline discussion; but then he must relinquish his right to call the movement a Panic at all. Panic, in the sense of ridiculous alarm, we very much doubt that it was. We know nothing about the peaceful designs of Louis Philippe. The "Citizen King" would probably have sacrificed the English alliance if his subjects had driven him to do so; and in speculating on the chances of his conduct or misconduct, Mr. Cobden is deserting the inductive for the *a priori* method. The figures we have quoted show that the French Government thought that there was at least a chance of war. The military and naval preparations against what Mr. Cobden thinks an impossible contingency were not confined to this side of the Channel. If there was alarm in England, France certainly knew why.

"Panic II." raged, according to Mr. Cobden, in 1852, and culminated in the spring of 1853. The French Minister of Marine could not understand it, and wrote a letter to Mr. Ewart, which that gentleman read aloud in the House of Commons. One of his colleagues communicated with Mr. Cobden; and all French statesmen professed unlimited surprise at England's fears. Mr. Cobden gravely reprobates them. We shall be able to show from his own statistics, that they were neither unreasonable nor unjustifiable.

It must be remembered that these were the years in which, after a long interval of rest, a Napoleon again appeared as the armed head of the French nation. What was there about his antecedents calculated to do away with the terrible impression produced in Europe by his name? He began the second Empire with a *coup d'état*, planned and executed with considerable dissimulation. Nobody knew what he would do next, and nobody had any reason to believe in protestations, which the Emperor's own subjects had learnt by their experience to distrust. Such was the feeling in England. Surely the state of Europe at the time was fully sufficient to warrant it. Let us see what light can be thrown on it by Mr. Cobden's French returns:—

Years.	Expenditure of French navy.	Expenditure for wages in French dockyards.	Number of seamen in French navy.	Number of French vessels in commission.
1850	£3,406,866	£432,837	24,679	181
1851	3,293,737	416,773	22,316	166
1852	3,462,271	425,811	25,016	175
1853	3,967,838	467,898	28,513	192

In the year 1851 there was a decrease in all the items, both in France and in England, upon the items of the previous year. But the next three years show a determined increase in the French returns alone, more especially in the number of commissioned ships. But when we compare them with the corresponding English statistics, the change becomes still more significant.

1851. 1852. 1853.

French naval expenditure	£3,293,737	£3,462,271	£3,967,838
English naval expenditure	5,849,917	6,625,944	6,640,596

Thus we find that the year after the Emperor's accession the French expenditure, which, being naturally less than ours, ought to increase

in a smaller ratio, leaps upwards by £500,000, while our own has merely increased by £15,000. The same disproportionate growth on the French side is shown under the other columns:—

	1852.	1853.
Wages of French naval dockyards	£425,811	£467,898
Wages of English ditto	702,200	719,214
	1852.	1853.
Number of French seamen	£25,016	£28,513
Number of English, ditto	40,451	45,885

When we consider that England is exclusively a naval power, relying on her maritime supremacy, and that France is not, we shall probably be of opinion that the activity shown by the French navy at the period of Panic II. was actually greater than that displayed by our own; and that panic in England was once more significantly synchronous with warlike preparation in France. If the alarm we reasonably felt was offensively paraded in Napoleon's face, he must remember that neither his name nor his political exploits had been of a character to reassure a free and peace-loving people.

We have hardly space left to deal with Panic III., which succeeded the Italian war. We grant willingly that the Emperor's unpopularity at that time was the result of continued efforts on the part of certain reactionists, who viewed with disfavour the growth of Italy and the dismemberment of Austria. But part at least of the English agitation in 1860 was not only reasonable, but useful. Mr. Cobden quotes with triumph the statistics of 1858, to show that the French navy was not enormous compared with our own. He forgets that the French naval expenditure that year, *as compared with the years before*, had shot up in a manner totally disproportioned to any corresponding increase in our own expenses.

1857.	1858.	1859.
French naval expenditure	£5,070,304	£5,337,060
English ditto	10,390,000	10,029,047

If in 1859 the English expenditure increased in so marked a way, we think the French return of 1859 furnishes a justification. The wages of the French dockyards in 1859 do not, it is true, show a corresponding growth. The truth is, the French had begun to work on iron ships before we did. The number of hands employed in the Government works did not vary, though an important change had been effected in the nature of their occupation. England woke up one morning to the consciousness that she was behind hand in the race, and was adding to her wooden fleet just at the moment when wooden ships had been laid aside by the French as useless. Panic III. was due partly to the Italian war, but mainly to the French monopoly of iron ships.

We have shown that Mr. Cobden's figures do not bear out his arguments. With some of his observations most liberal-minded Englishmen will reluctantly agree. The Board of Admiralty is to blame for a great deal of the periodical alarm which at intervals falls on this country. If that department was not so slow and so deficient, England would not only be more safe, but more tranquil. Finally—the time must soon come when the country will consider seriously how long this race of armaments and expenditure is to last. Is there no hope of a mutual disarmament? The Emperor of the French has some right, after ten years, to be considered a friend to the English alliance. The peace of the world demands that we should not unnecessarily prolong our attitude of suspicion. Important as are the national defences, retrenchment and peace are noble blessings, if they can be secured without sacrifice of security or honour. A ninepenny income-tax is beginning to make us all feel as peaceful as Mr. Bright himself would have us. Can no arrangement be made between the two great nations of Europe, to put an end to this vast outlay of French and English capital on the materials and implements of war? If Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Cobden together can do nothing, nothing can, we suppose, be done.

#### MR. BRIGGS IN DANGER.

THIS is a very serious Saturday for many an honest and peace-loving country gentleman. Next week the Great Exhibition opens, and Mr. Briggs, farmer and yeoman, will be obliged to think of visiting the metropolis, and, what is worse, he may have to carry a bevy of blushing domestic beauties under his fatherly wing. The horrors of his arrival in the metropolis may well strike dismay into his soul. He will lose his head at the railway station. He will lose his purse in the omnibus that conveys him to his lodgings. He will lose his temper when he makes the acquaintance of the lodgings themselves. As for the scene that probably will meet him, the very moment he puts his bewildered person out of the railway carriage, it can better be imagined than described. Hundreds of porters will trail loaded machines over his toes. He will be beset by numerous harpies in the shape of drivers and conductors, who will rejoice to do battle over his body. A roar of cabs and conveyances, and the infernal din of half a dozen locomotives letting off steam at one and the same moment, will deafen his ears. What will become of his luggage, and when will he find it? In all probability never at all on this side of the grave. Such will be the noise, and turmoil, and

The dangers London are experienced for should at least impostors and k the flanks of the continent. The great deal for t agencies, correspo various large to telegraphic comm some arrangeth metropolis might already been set still be done for short. If two o sent to officiate as properly accredit

crush that he will not have a chance of distinguishing his boxes from the boxes of anybody else.

"O fortunati nimium sua si bona norint  
Agricola!"

Happy the British farmer who will know which carpet-bag and trunk are his. The dissenting minister who was in the habit of being made use of as a male chaperon by the ladies of his congregation is said to have consoled himself on his death bed by the reflection that there would be no bandboxes in heaven. If there are not, the female portion of the Briggs family stand a bad chance of ever coming across this peculiar part of their travelling property, for it may safely be predicted that they will not see it again on earth. Nor will the day of the arrival of the British farmer and his family be the last day of his troubles. His ills will go on increasing at an extravagantly geometrical ratio all the time that he is in town. The gas-pipes will burst outside his lodgings—as is the nature of London gas-pipes at seasons of great national interest, and when they are particularly wanted. The water-pipes will burst inside—and as Mr. Briggs is not, like the camel, constructed on the principle of going as long as possible without water, he will feel the loss in the hot weather acutely. Lastly, he will not be able to turn anywhere without being fleeced. He will be overcharged for his cabs, imposed upon in the matter of his dinners, and have to pay treble for Bass's pale ale. Thirsty, dusty, and deliquescent, he will wander to and fro in the streets, losing his way, and looking forward to the happy hour when he will be able to retrace his steps home, and to be once more an English country gentleman after the manner of his forefathers.

The following advertisement, which we extract from the daily papers, is not calculated to cheer the flagging spirits of Mr. Briggs before his journey:—

"COUNTRY GENTLEMEN UNACQUAINTED WITH LONDON.—Two Gentlemen whose time is entirely unoccupied OFFER their services as Ciceroni to one or more country gentlemen of good means and position desirous of seeing town during any part of the season. References exchanged. Address Zeta, Mr. —, Stationer, — Street, Portman-square."

Except the general invitation from the spider to the fly, with which we are familiar from our childhood, we have never come across a more repulsive-looking or cold-blooded proposition. Mr. Briggs is evidently one of the class to whom it is addressed. He is a country gentleman. He is totally unacquainted with the metropolis. His means and position are unexceptionable; and he is desirous of visiting London during the season. Though brave as a lion—his family having come over with the Conqueror—he is not at all the kind of person who would care to find himself in a dark London alley in the company of two gentlemen whose time is "entirely unoccupied," and who are anxious to attend on country gentlemen "unacquainted with town." In these days of garrotting not even a Bishop is safe; and there is every reason to suppose that the same Person still finds mischief for hands that are "entirely unoccupied," who used to find it for them in the days of Dr. Watts. We strongly trust that Mr. Briggs will be careful. Let him keep his eye upon dark-looking sportsmen who hunt in couples, and who offer to assist him with his luggage. *Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes* is the one Latin quotation with which every country gentleman is familiar, and he is bound to produce it on this occasion. We have often heard strange stories of the uses to which advertising is put. Things have seldom before, we venture to think, been managed with such barefaced publicity. Nor does it say much for the patriotism of the two totally unemployed gentlemen, that they should select their own fellow-countrymen for their prey, at a time when they may pick and choose from the whole world. Surely there are Frenchmen enough in all conscience who are strangers to London life. We hope and trust that the unprotected country gentleman, whose innocent nature is his best defence, will be upon his guard as the train rolls in at Paddington or at Waterloo, and reply to any officious offer of assistance in the language of the poet:—

"I'm a young man from the country,  
But you don't come over me."

The dangers to which country gentlemen unacquainted with London are exposed will be multiplied indefinitely in the case of inexperienced foreigners. It is a matter of real importance that we should at least endeavour to protect our visitors from the hordes of impostors and knaves who will hang like a cloud of skirmishers on the flanks of the little army that is arriving at Dover from the Continent. The various consulates could, if they were so disposed, do a great deal for the denizens of their respective countries. Central agencies, corresponding with them, might have been established in the various large towns of Germany and France; and, in these days of telegraphic communication, it would not have been difficult to make some arrangement by which apartments in various quarters of the metropolis might have been secured beforehand. Something has already been set on foot for the protection of working men. Much may still be done for foreigners of other grades in life, though the time is short. If two or three mercantile houses of respectability would consent to officiate as *proxeni* to foreigners of different countries, who came properly accredited, numbers of respectable registered lodgings would

soon be placed at their disposal, and the police might exercise a necessary surveillance over each. A foreigner, on arriving at the London terminus, would have nothing to do but to drive straight to the office of the firm that had lent its name to his country, and put himself in communication with them. Apartments of character would be secured in this way for all comers, and the police would take care that no lawless traveller took an improper advantage of the respectability of the lodging into which he was introduced. The crowd that may be expected from abroad will, in all likelihood, be so large, that no great amount of references as to character can be demanded on either side. It would be the more desirable to supply, by the means of police supervision, the want of ordinary guarantees, which will at these times be felt both by those who hire and those who let accommodation. We cannot too strongly press,—not merely on the Government, but also on those commercial firms whose dealings with France and Germany render them the natural guardians of unprotected French visitors to the Exhibition,—the necessity of some such step. England's character for hospitality is partially at stake, and we are sure that there are many of the leading men in the metropolis who would be only too glad to take up the matter in a friendly and liberal spirit.

#### LORD CANNING.

ONE leading idea may be easily traced through the admirable series of measures which have marked the latter years of Lord Canning's government in India. The design which is visible in them all—a design well worthy of the highest efforts of a statesman—has been to strengthen the attachment of the natives to our government, and to draw together in harmony the two great races which are being gradually brought face to face in that country. While the beginning of his government must ever be memorable for the terrible crisis through which we then passed, its close will be distinguished by a policy of conciliation, the results of which are destined to fill a no less important page of history. The two periods into which Lord Canning's government is naturally divided seem thus to have each a certain character of unity. In the former he was engaged in suppressing the mutinous sepoys by force of arms; in the latter he endeavoured to overcome the discontent of the natives and make them willing subjects by the still greater force of just and generous treatment. Lord Canning has pursued this policy with a firmness and consistency, and, so far as can yet be judged, with a success which will entitle him to be numbered among the great rulers of India.

There is no mystery about Indian government. Human nature is the same there as it is elsewhere, though we have, unhappily, acted as if the races of India were to be governed on other principles than those which have ever been found successful. People will be obedient if it is their interest to be so. Lord Canning has recognized the fact that we cannot expect good and satisfied subjects in India unless they have employment and honour suited to their rank and abilities, and he has accordingly opened a path of ambition for the native gentlemen, while he has given increased security and protection to the ranks below. When the mutiny was crushed and the battle over, he based his hopes of tranquillity not so much on force of arms as on justice and kindness to all ranks, and on making the natives feel that our prosperity was their own. Some of the best men who have ruled India have urged the propriety of admitting the natives to a share of responsibility and power, and of conceding to native gentlemen social equality with Europeans; and wherever the principle was adopted, as in the instance of Scinde, during the government of Sir Charles Napier, it was attended by the happiest results. It was reserved, however, for Lord Canning to apply this principle on a grand and extensive scale. By the establishment of the new councils and the new supreme courts native gentlemen are associated with Europeans on terms of perfect equality in the highest legislative and judicial functions, and by giving them posts of responsibility in their own districts, and by various smaller measures, their importance is increased, and they have every motive to desire the stability of our rule. A certain class of persons are too much in the habit of treating the natives of India with a contumely which is undeserved. They forget what able men have been among these Eastern races. Many of them possess ambition as well as genius, and the want of a proper feeling towards them on the part of some of our countrymen has often been pointed out as the source of future danger to English rule in India. By raising the natives to social equality with Europeans, and placing high and honourable posts within their reach, Lord Canning has done much to diminish this danger. There are, however, people who say that it is not prudent to place any power in the hands of the natives, or to put into their heads any idea of equality with Europeans. It is too late to talk in this way, as the idea is in their heads already. The spirit displayed during the mutiny, when the real feelings of the people were not concealed, is sufficient proof of that. There is, doubtless, some danger in allowing the natives to share our power, but there is greater danger in having every class and rank arrayed against us by a secret feeling of discontent arising from a state of social inequality, and from seeing the highest paths of honour closed against them. Our safety in India lies in preventing a com-

bination of the people against us, and that combination will be impossible so long as there are numerous classes of our native subjects perfectly satisfied with their condition. In the words of a successful ruler of India, who advocated the policy now adopted by Lord Canning, "danger is not removed by concealment but by preparation, and that noble justice which makes power scorn exclusive privileges, and gives to weakness all its rights."

Second in importance, and only second to the measures just mentioned for securing the attachment of the natives to our rule, are the steps taken by Lord Canning towards decentralization in India. By this is not meant the establishment of separate kingdoms, but simply giving greater power of independent action to the local governments. These governments were unable to make any law or regulation affecting the most trivial matter, or to incur the expenditure of a single rupee, without first submitting the matter to the Governor-General in Council. The local governments had thus no power and great responsibility, and the Supreme Government was overburdened with a multitude of details to which it was impossible to give immediate attention. This want of independent power of action was the great vice of the Indian system. It is well described by Sir Charles Napier:—"I am Commander-in-Chief of the Indian army, but I cannot order a man to move. I must write a letter to one secretary, who writes to another, who addresses a third, who asks the Governor-General's leave for the Commander-in-Chief to move the companies back. The house that Jack built is a joke to it. The commander of 300,000 men cannot move two companies out of danger without leave of the civil powers." When correspondence of this sort is carried on between Calcutta and Madras or Bombay, it is easy to see how the time for action may pass, and how deeply the public service may suffer. To this evil must be added the evil effects that such a system produces on the local governments themselves. They had a galling sense of dependence on Calcutta secretaries. They were responsible for the well-being of many millions of people, without the power of taking any measures which they may deem important to insure success. The great motive for exertion was taken away, and the circumstances that might have produced a wholesome rivalry among the several local governments was changed into jealousy of the Council at Calcutta. It was moreover clearly impossible that a single set of men could be capable of directing the details of government in all the diversified provinces of India. It might be as well supposed that the British Cabinet could direct satisfactorily the municipal details of every corporation in Great Britain. Two important steps have already been taken through the instrumentality of Lord Canning for remedying these evils. The several presidencies have received local legislative councils, with the power of making laws and regulations subject to the veto of the Governor-General on local matters, and the several local governments have received certain powers of local taxation, the proceeds of which are to be applied in public works of advantage to the locality. There are many subjects which can be dealt with better in a local way than by any central system. This is particularly so with regard to taxation. People regard with very different eyes a temporary local tax levied for an object of local advantage, and a general tax which goes into the remote and unfathomed gulf of the imperial exchequer. Moreover, not only will money be raised for local purposes with greater willingness, but it will be spent with greater economy. The cost of the establishments for superintending public works in India is disgraceful, and almost incredible. It was mentioned by Mr. Laing, in bringing forward his Budget last year, that Madras spent £160,000 in looking after an expenditure of £460,000. This would not be likely to occur if the money were wholly raised from the people for whose advantage it was spent. To this may be added the evident remark that this power of local taxation will foster the growth of municipal institutions and the spirit of local independence.

No account of Lord Canning's Government would be complete without advertizing to the measures taken to restore the financial credit and to develop the material resources of India. The improvement in the finances is beyond doubt. After eight years of continual deficits and continual increase of debt, equilibrium has been at length restored, and almost the last act of Lord Canning was the repeal of a tax. We shall not be in full possession of the exact state of the finances till Mr. Laing makes his financial statement; but we may conclude that the estimated revenue for the coming year is in excess of the estimated expenditure, otherwise the licence tax would not have been repealed. There is another tax the repeal of which at the present time would have given more general satisfaction in this country. In the depressed state of the Manchester trade, the removal of the duty on the import of cotton goods into India would have been received as a great boon. There is, however, still hope that the state of the finances will be such as to allow of the repeal of this tax also in the present year. The licence-tax is one of three proposed by Mr. Wilson in 1860, and characterized by Sir Charles Trevelyan as the "three tremendous taxes." They were not very well adapted for India, and Lord Canning was, no doubt, anxious to leave as few as possible of these temporary taxes behind him. The income-tax is the only one of the three now remaining, and that has not proved of the great financial importance expected by its proposer. The

equilibrium has, therefore, been effected mainly in the way in which Sir Charles Trevelyan maintained it could be done—by reduction of expenditure.

#### NEW ASPECTS OF THE ALBERT MEMORIAL.

We could not help reading the able report of the committee for the great Albert Memorial with a little regret at its negative character. The subscription has reached a handsome height, but the limit of those who are willing to subscribe to an undefined object has been, we believe, nearly touched; and we had hoped that all further uncertainty would be now removed, and the way made clear for some national monument, more worthy of the name than those which can scarcely be said to beautify our streets and cathedrals. There is also a slight ambiguity about the argument, as the committee sum it up at the close. The Obelisk is rejected, not as impossible on the ground of expense or physical difficulty, but partly because a proper block has not yet been found, partly because it would exhaust the subscriptions hitherto promised, partly because it might not have a satisfactory effect. Of these rather incongruous reasons, we conclude that the *onus rejiciendi* lies in the last.

So far as the Osirian Obelisk is concerned, we are pleased to find the views of the committee in agreement with those which this journal expressed at the outset of the business. It was argued then that in itself this fine Egyptian form could not be effective in modern England, or ally itself felicitously with the sculptural groups which are to form part of the design. In a matter so closely bound up with feelings which time has only strengthened, it is proper to add that the suggestion which had been made at headquarters would not have been thus criticized, without the strong conviction that, to the nation at large, an obelisk would not be that really living and heartfelt commemoration of the Prince Consort which we all wish for. And with this feeling we must confess a certain regret in finding that the report no longer appears to consider it advisable to adhere to any portion of that idea which, we believe, stood first in her Majesty's desire. In abandoning the Obelisk, the committee seem to have abandoned the Monolith with it. We think that in General Grey's suggestion, that the sculpture should be combined with some architectural design, we read the expression of a hope that the Monolithic element, or something analogous, may yet form part of the Memorial. A few words may, therefore, be now devoted to point out the reasonableness of such a scheme and the methods by which it might be realized.

If sculpture were a truly living art, the great men known and honoured, the lesser working in an honest style to the best of their powers, and their productions arousing the strong popular interest which music and painting excite, we would certainly say that—within the scale of monument to be adopted—sculpture alone would most nobly serve our purpose. But now, when all these conditions are simply reversed, we see little practical chance that the colossal group, if entrusted to one man, would end in anything better than the deadness or the extravagance with which the last unfortunate experiments in London have made us too familiar. Hence, to associate another element of art with sculpture affords a second chance, as it were, of avoiding failure. It is under this proviso that we are disposed to interpret the suggestion above alluded to, and that we intend to discuss it.

When a monument consists of a single figure, although a single figure is never seen to anything like full advantage without a suitable architectural background, yet architectural construction may, no doubt, be dispensed with. Thus, many of the statues in the Athenian Acropolis appear to have been ranged over the area on separate pedestals, although the majority were framed and set within the walls of the most perfect of human buildings. But where something greater and more memorable than the simple statue is designed, it is certain that a greater and more memorable character may be given by combination of the two noble arts which in modern times have been so injuriously dissevered. Of course, the Parthenon afforded the most splendid memorial of this nature which the most gifted of our race ever raised in honour of a national faith. But, except as a kind of standard, it is of no use to appeal to it: neither the funds nor the art requisite are likely to be forthcoming. If we could name a perfect sculptor, we do not know where to find an architect to support him with equal art; still less can we expect to find a Pericles to understand and select him, and bear him safe through the opposition which great art, like great poetry, is sure to meet from the little-minded of its own day. Yet in some less ambitious form we think the Royal wish may be successfully carried out.

One plan might be to resort to architecture proper, and build a hall with the greatest perfection of design and execution, containing, as its principal feature, the portrait-statue of the Prince, supported by groups or by bas-reliefs; whilst the remaining space should be solely devoted to one or more collections bearing on the principal public interests of that energetic and intellectual life. The natural elements of our manufactures, botanical and chemical—to use the phrases roughly—might be shown in different stages of their advance from the first material to the finished work; and we should then have a Museum of Practical Science, resuming under one roof, and, as it were, in a brief and brilliant summary, what has been done in greater detail at Kew and in Jermyn-street. Or such a collection as Prince Albert is stated to have formed of designs from Raphael might be honourably

treasured should call Pleasing cannot seri selection of would alone without a f to construct would not, render the we believe It is probab versed in k working arch Nor—suppo mark to app There would diverted from lecture-room lastly—speak art,—here off building wou so little likely be unerringly of the design

Waiving, th of sculpture, we return to statuary with bered, entered we cannot dou (it seems to us) to think that before advocate serviceable. W special—we ma all ages of Chri monuments of t and recollectio it in this case in cross, of the beau conform to the L the monument, think should not a rather remote disengage oursel the construction proved by the fa lithic character o to fulfil a manif this law rigidly r thus, it would no same rule justifie piece to form th ornament, if it rea in itself a monum undoubtedly erect the report of the c the expense of g almost geometrical each, might together

With an essent sculpture could be idea and direction this point by the r the Egyptianism o it must be rememb as those means are the very few who h risk of default her placed round or ne it as a symbol of t left more free to tr tion. And the co form of the circula the cross would sti the sculptor chosen of the true stamp rightly and anxious we should hardly h personal merit and that the plans we h discussion; at least has so much at hea

treasured here,—the main point being to preserve what, in a high sense, we should call the ornamental or shrine-like character of the whole.

Pleasing and unique in England as such a scheme would be, we fear it cannot seriously be recommended; so many minor difficulties beset it. The selection of the style, especially when battles on the point rage so fiercely, would alone be a great perplexity. The Greek—even if it could be adopted without a fatal practical anachronism—would lead to the impossible attempt to construct an English Parthenon; which, except on a physically large scale, would not, to our coarse modern eyes, look effective. Other reasons would render the choice of Gothic unlikely; whilst the Byzantine style, to which we believe the Prince was partial, would be far too hazardous an experiment. It is probable that the Italian would be preferred; but, though tolerably versed in knowledge of the profession, we certainly could name no one working architect who can now touch that style with first-rate vital power. Nor—supposing these questions set at rest—could any building of sufficient mark to appeal to us as a *building* be put up without excessive expense. There would be danger, also, that a Hall might, under specious pretexts, be diverted from the essential idea of a Memorial Shrine, and pass into the lecture-room or institute for personal display or profit. The sculpture, lastly—speaking always with an eye to the present fallen state of the noble art,—here offers a special difficulty. A portrait-statue or a group within a building would require peculiar force and skill to give it prominence. It is so little likely that the one or two thorough sculptors whom we have would be unerringly selected, that we think the risk of failure in the central feature of the design should not be encountered.

Waiving, therefore, this plan, for the reasons now indicated, and the group of sculpture, pure and simple, until we have a Pericles to choose a Phidias, we return to the idea of a monument in open air, which shall combine statuary with more or less of the monolithic element. This, it will be remembered, entered so markedly into the first announcement of the scheme, that we cannot doubt it would be reluctantly surrendered by one to whose desires (it seems to us) we are bound to pay no common deference. And we venture to think that here the suggestion of the early Christian Cross, which we before advocated when the Monolith alone was in debate, would be found serviceable. We will not repeat the arguments already given to prove the special—we may say, the unique—propriety of the symbol. Consecrated in all ages of Christendom to mark the tomb and form the main feature in the monuments of the faithful dead,—endeared to most minds at once by hopes and recollections,—we are little disposed to argue with any who would consider it in this case inapplicable. What we have here to dwell on is, that a granite cross, of the beautiful design which we have already described, might at once conform to the limits of a rational expenditure, form a conspicuous feature in the monument, and preserve the essential constructive quality which we think should not, in this case, be abandoned. For (to turn for a moment to a rather remote region of taste), the essence of the Monolith lies, when we disengage ourselves from what is too literally suggested by the word, not in the construction of the whole work from a single stone,—a point at once proved by the fact that a separate base forms no impediment to the monolithic character of the Obelisk,—but in the employment of large single stones to fulfil a manifestly single constructional function. Now, in an Obelisk, this law rigidly requires that the whole shaft shall be undivided. Except thus, it would not have been recognized in Egypt. But in the Cross, the same rule justifies us in crowning an unbroken stem with another single piece to form the head. Such a Cross, with its due incised and gilded ornament, if it reached a total height of fifty feet, would be, in our judgment, in itself a monument of unusual splendour and effectiveness; and it could be undoubtedly erected for one-fifth of the expense of the Obelisk, as defined by the report of the committee; for, when unusual dimensions are to be reached, the expense of granite, like the value of diamonds, follows the size in an almost geometrical proportion of advance. Ten blocks, for example, of ten feet each, might together cost £5,000, where one of a hundred would exceed £50,000.

With an essentially monolithic centre-piece, it would seem clear that sculpture could be combined with the best effect, as it would give a leading idea and direction in the right way to the groups. The objection raised on this point by the report can refer only to the essential incongruity between the Egyptianism of the Obelisk and the Hellenism of statuary. Sculpture, it must be remembered, has but few means of addressing us, and, powerful as those means are, they are simply never grasped in any degree, except by the very few who have genius enough to grasp them entirely. To meet the risk of default here, we should throw in all the collateral aid we can. Groups placed round or near a cross might at once derive a unity of meaning from it as a symbol of the death of the righteous, and would at the same time be left more free to treat the less directly religious elements of the representation. And the comparatively smaller size suggested above, whilst from the form of the circular-headed cross compared with that of the tapering obelisk, the cross would still retain a most conspicuous character, would also enable the sculptor chosen for the responsible task of the portrait-statue—if a man of the true stamp—to give that prominence to his work which has been so rightly and anxiously desired. That if is, indeed, all-important: but though we should hardly hesitate as to the reply, a point so inevitably trenching on personal merit and personal judgment must be passed by here. We trust that the plans we have suggested may contribute a few fresh elements to the discussion; at least, they will indicate our sympathy with what the Queen has so much at heart.

#### THE COSTS OF THE WINDHAM CASE.

THE last phase of the Windham case is, perhaps, to the public at large, the most important. Whether or not Mr. Windham's misconduct was gross enough to entitle him to the care of a madhouse was a very serious question for him, though it mattered little directly to the world at large; but whether it is to be understood that whenever the Lords Justices think proper to put a man on his trial for insanity, he is to be obliged to run the risk of ruining himself in order to show that he is sane, is a matter of a very different kind, and is one which interests the whole community. It will be strange if they are satisfied with the view taken of it in the judgments, delivered by the Lords Justices Knight Bruce and Turner last Thursday. The facts are shortly these.

Mr. Windham's relations entertaining doubts as to his sanity, submitted to the Lords Justices a great mass of affidavits tending to establish his madness, and forming the ground of a request that an inquiry into the matter might be held. Mr. Windham also presented affidavits of an opposite character, and he was seen by several medical men, who, coupling what they saw with what they inferred from the affidavits, made their reports to the Lords Justices. Upon these reports and affidavits the inquiry was granted. It lasted, as we all remember, for more than a month, at a vast expense in point of money, time, and scandal, and was finally decided in Mr. Windham's favour. The question, under these circumstances, was, whether Mr. Windham should recover his costs from the persons at whose instance the inquiry was granted. The Lords Justices have decided that he cannot, and the reasons upon which this decision is founded are given in the judgments reported in the *Times* of last Thursday.

Lord Justice Knight Bruce's judgment consists almost entirely of a defence of the conduct of himself and his colleague in granting the inquiry, which, he says, the public interests imperatively required. He then goes on to say, that he believes that the petitioners *acted bona fide*, and he adds,—

“That Mr. Windham incurred a heavy expenditure in resisting the original petitioners' proceedings must, I suppose, be true; but assuming him to have been always of a sound mind, it must be considered that his own acts and conduct were the occasion and cause of those proceedings, which were necessarily expensive, as well as painful to himself and others.”

Lord Justice Turner's judgment was to the same effect, but he laid down, more explicitly than his colleague, the principle on which he proposed to proceed. He says,—

“This petition states no more than that the verdict of the jury has been found in favour of the petitioner. I have no hesitation in saying that I should not think it right to give these costs, or any part of them, upon that ground alone. The Crown, as I have already observed, has the care and custody of the persons and estates of lunatics as *parens patriæ*. It exercises its parental power at the instance of the relations or friends of the alleged lunatics who apply to it on their behalf, and nothing, in my opinion, could be more prejudicial to the welfare of the unfortunate persons on whose behalf such applications are made, than to give any countenance to the notion that the application will, of necessity, subject the persons by whom they are made to the payment, not merely of their own costs, but of all the costs which may be incurred, if, in the result, the verdict of a jury should establish that the applications cannot be supported. To lay down any such doctrine would, in many instances at least, go far to paralyze the power of the Crown, and to deprive those who may unhappily be visited with mental disease of the care and protection which, by virtue of that power, is thrown around them in the exercise of the jurisdiction in lunacy.”

After discussing the evidence given at the trial, and expressing his opinion that if the whole of it on both sides had been before the Court originally, he should still have thought it his duty to grant an inquiry, he concludes thus:—

“Upon the whole of this very painful case, my opinion is, that the application for this inquiry was made *bona fide*, without any personal motive or consideration, and with a view to the best interests of this petitioner; and I am of opinion, therefore, that the case ought to be dismissed, so far as respects the costs.”

We do not think that the Lords Justices are happy either in their principles or in the application of them. The Crown has a right, and it is its duty to exercise a control over the person and property of lunatics; certain persons acting *bona fide* succeed in showing that there is *prima facie* ground for supposing that A. B. is, or may be, a lunatic, and they are actuated in so doing by benevolent motives to A. B. Therefore let A. B. be compelled to go to immense expense—an expense which, in many cases might be ruinous—in order to prove that he is not a lunatic. Surely this is wonderfully strange logic, for it leads to the conclusion that a man of sound mind may, by process of law, be put to immense expense in convincing other people that they were mistaken in supposing him to be mad; and when he complains, he is to be told, first, that if he chooses to behave in such a way as to afford any excuse for supposing that he is mad, he must pay for it; and, secondly, that if people were discouraged from bringing false charges of madness, mad people, who might otherwise get an advantage from being ascertained to be mad, would occasionally be deprived of it. Or, to state the same proposition in concrete instead of abstract terms, Mr. Windham is to be put to an expense of several thousands of pounds, for the sake of the contingent interests of future lunatics—he not being a lunatic at all. Each of the principles upon which the judgment proceeds appears to us both false and mischievous. Lord Justice Knight Bruce falls into the common, but most mischievous mistake, of confounding the provinces of law and morality. Whatever he may have been in the eyes of a moralist, Mr. Windham ought, in the eye of the law, after his verdict, to be considered simply as a sane person whose sanity had

been wrongfully attacked. All that he had done he had a legal right to do ; and if his relations chose to put a false interpretation on his conduct—however natural and plausible that interpretation might be—that was their affair. They acted, and ought to be made to feel that they acted, on their peril, and, as they were mistaken, they ought to take the consequences. That they were misled by the immorality of their kinsman is nothing to the purpose. Moral sanctions are the proper safeguards against moral misconduct. If a man has a legal right to do what is morally wrong, he is entitled to the same protection in the exercise of that as in the exercise of his other rights ; and those who infringe it should do so at their own expense, and should indemnify him for the expense to which their misapprehension has put him. In a word, the question is not whether the petitioners acted in good faith, but whether Mr. Windham has been illegally put to expense.

Lord Justice Turner's principle is perhaps somewhat wider than his colleague's, but it is even more dangerous. In substance it comes to this,—the law favours petitions for Commissions of Lunacy, and will not make the petitioners pay the costs of the alleged lunatic, who succeeds in establishing his sanity, if they act *bond fide*. That equity judges should take this view of the matter need not, perhaps, be matter of surprise, for it heightens their authority by making their certificate that the inquiry ought to take place a protection to those who set it on foot. To the public it will probably be less satisfactory. Technically, no doubt, the Chancellor's jurisdiction over lunatics is a branch of the royal prerogative, and so the inquiry whether or not a man is a lunatic may be described as a public inquiry for the benefit of the person whose sanity is questioned. In practice it is otherwise. Such an inquiry as took place in Mr. Windham's case is really and substantially as much a civil action as an action on a bill of exchange. The real issue tried was not whether or not Mr. Windham was sane, but whether or not he ought to be allowed to manage his own estate. If the unfortunate youth had not had considerable property in possession, and much more in expectancy, no one would have troubled himself about his state of mind. The object of his family—possibly a very legitimate one—undoubtedly was to keep the family estate from being ignominiously wasted by depriving him of the control of it, and this is the real question in dispute on all such occasions. This is a purely private question. It is one in which the public at large have no interest whatever, and it is an anomaly, and neither a reasonable nor a convenient one, that it should be treated in the same public manner which is explained by Lord Justice Turner, and which involves the absurd consequence that a sane man is to be half ruined because he was falsely supposed to be mad. The practical result of the present mode of treating it is that a cumbrous double trial takes place, first before a court of equity by affidavits, and secondly before a jury and a special judge, who has neither the weight nor the experience which would be possessed by one of the fifteen judges. Ultimately, the Chancery judges consider where the moral merits of the case lie, and apportion the costs accordingly. All this is loose, unsatisfactory, and incoherent. One trial would be quite enough, and there is no more reason why the petitioners should get leave from the Lords Justices to have such a trial than there is for making the plaintiff in an ordinary action obtain the permission of a judge to bring it. The straightforward and sensible course would be to allow the fact of a person's incompetency to manage his person and property to be established by those who are interested in it as in ordinary actions at law, the costs, according to the well-known and reasonable principle, following the verdict. The parties would then act at their own risk and their own discretion, and the moral and legal bearings of the case would each be dealt with separately and on satisfactory principles.

#### THE CYRENE MARBLES IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

A SERIES of marbles from Cyrene is the latest of the great additions which have made the enlargement of the space for antiquities in the British Museum an imperative necessity. At present they can only be placed in one of the sheds that deface the portico, where the public cannot be admitted to see them. It is to be hoped that before long they will be arranged in a Cyrene Gallery, where every one will be able not only to see them, but to see them in the best manner.

These new marbles are not examples of the highest school of Greek art, yet they have many claims to our attention : they are in every case genuine and untouched, not even a nose having yet been added, though it is to be feared that they will not long escape the inevitable restorer ; they are various in their subjects ; and they afford us great aid in reconstructing the history of art.

It may seem surprising that African Cyrene should have produced thoroughly Greek works, although it was a Greek colony. In some respects its Hellenic population was strongly influenced by the Libyans, who dwelt with them in the city and the territory of which it was long the capital. To Libyan influence was doubtless due the sentiment that gave Cyrene a magnificent necropolis ; for the Greeks were not a tomb-building race, and the greatest tomb raised by them was that of a barbarian, Mausolus. From the Libyans the Greeks learnt the worship of Jupiter Ammon, who shared with Apollo the chief place in their religion. As the Greeks were the governing race, there can be no question that we here perceive an influence. In art, however, we can discover nothing of the kind ; in Cyrene it is thoroughly Greek, without even that local peculiarity that is traceable in the works of other Hellenic colonies.

Every period of Greek art might receive illustrations from discoveries at Cyrene. Founded at the time when that art was in its infancy, this city lived through its four great ages, which remarkably correspond to the four ages of the history of the place. The kings of the house of Battus ruled throughout the period of archaic art ; the Republic rose at the time when Greek art was at its highest ; the first Ptolemy made its territory a province of his kingdom almost at the commencement of Macedonian art ; the Romans seized it not long before the Augustan age, when Graeco-Roman art began. It is unfortunate that the new marbles do not belong, with very few exceptions, to the first and second ages of art ; they are of the Macedonian and Graeco-Roman schools, and doubtless were made for the Ptolemies and Caesars, or at least under their rule.

It is necessary here to lay down the chief characteristics of the schools to which we assign these marbles. The period of high art produced two schools which may be called those of Phidias and Scopas. Phidias idealized nature with the strictest adherence to truth. His was the school of repose. His successors idealized nature with the intention of pleasing. Theirs was the school of action. Of the first school we have no portraits ; of the second, one, at least, in sculpture, that of Mausolus, which shows that while art had declined in its highest province, the purely ideal, it maintained an excellence not to be surpassed in ideal portraiture. This conclusion is abundantly confirmed by the portraits of contemporary coins. These portraits are idealized with the utmost skill, and the statue of Mausolus or the coin of Lysimachus, bearing Alexander's head, may well drive the modern sculptor or medallist to despair. The Macedonian school, of which Lysippus was the leader, had lost all power of idealization, and chiefly endeavoured to supply the want by effects. Going a step beyond its predecessor, this school falsified nature with the intention of pleasing, and may be characterized as dramatic and even theatrical. Yet still in portraiture, though it could not idealize, it showed a breadth and true feeling worthy of the better days of Greek art. Even the latest school, when the Greeks worked for Roman masters, could still copy, and, while unable to execute drapery, or maintain that natural canon of form which had been violated before Lysippus, produced heads which, although they did not concentrate and heighten the expressions of the original, yet represented one expression with great and even courageous truthfulness.

We are therefore mainly interested in portrait-art in the cases of the schools that followed that of Phidias, and happily here we have several portraits. In studying them, we must remember that the artist and the subject have more weight in portrait-art than in purely ideal art. Look, for instance, at the beautiful portrait-bust, usually miscalled Clytie, which represents a Roman lady of the Augustan age, perhaps the great Antonia. Who can fail to place high in the scale of portrait-art this tender tale of a life in marble ? Had it not been a copy of nature, it would never have been produced, even by the feeling hand that sculptured it, in an age of bald and weak repetitions of the least excellent works of earlier times.

The colossal statue of Apollo has excited more interest than any of its fellow-sculptures. There has been some debate as to its age, it having been variously assigned to the Greek period and the Graeco-Roman, and even brought down as low as the time of Hadrian. Happily it is nearly perfect, although it has been put together from a hundred and twenty-one pieces. The type is throughout manly, though there is an approach to feminine character in the expression of the face, the arrangement of the hair, and the roundness of the outlines. The position is designed with a desire to show action, and a general feeling for display. The figure is nearly naked, the drapery hanging over the left shoulder down the back, and in front across the lower part of the legs. The right arm is raised above the head, about to strike the lyre, which is touched by the left hand, and rests on the trunk of a tree. On the tree are suspended the bow and quiver : around the tree and quiver twines a serpent. The execution is unequal. The head is very delicately and skilfully worked, and far superior to the body ; a frequent characteristic of sculpture after the time of Phidias. The feet seem clumsy, especially the left foot. The drapery is good, though not in the best style, some of the folds being grooved, which is an indication of decline. The accessories are crowded. The sandal of the left foot, the lyre, the bow, and the quiver, are all ornamented. Contrast the soft expression with the set firmness of the early Apollo in the Phigaleian Room, and the position with the stately figure of the gods in the Elgin frieze. Contrast, again, the full proportions with the elongation and thinness of the statues which belong to the school of Lysippus, and the easy natural position with the forced theatrical mannerism of the Apollo Belvidere and the Roman statues in this very collection. Then you will perceive that this statue, notwithstanding its radical faults, must owe its origin to the school of Scopas. The faults which are not radical, the defects of execution, and the crowding of accessories, seem to mark a later date, and to justify the supposition that this is a copy, but rather of the Macedonian than the Graeco-Roman age. The idea that it is an original work, or even a free copy, executed in the latter period, seems wholly incredible. There are some special indications of the date of its execution, which may aid us in determining the question. The larger statue of Bacchus in this collection has the same sandals ornamented with an ivy-leaf, which, be it remembered, is appropriate to Bacchus and not to Apollo ; and this suggests, if the two statues were executed at the same time, that an idea was taken from the one for the other. The Bacchus, however, is so weak, that its earliest date is late in the Macedonian period. Again, the colossal statue of Hadrian shows

in its drapery, great resemblance to the Apollo. The head of this statue, however, does not properly belong to the body, to which it seems to have been anciently fitted, as appears from an examination of the neck. The body may, therefore, have been older. There is, moreover, one great difficulty in the way of all conjecture as to the time and place of execution of the statue of Apollo, founded on its discovery in the same site as others. It is of Parian marble, and all the others are of Pentelic.

Next in date to the Apollo, and far superior in importance, though hitherto unnoticed, is a colossal statue of a queen, undoubtedly, from the period to which it must be assigned, and the style of the head-dress, one of the Egyptian sovereigns, a Berenice or Cleopatra, who ruled at Cyrene. This is shown by the head. Her hair falls in long curls, and is bound by a royal fillet; on the back of her head is a veil. The head thus resembles those of Egyptian queens, as represented on their coins. The figure is short and thick, the bust full, the face heavy, and the execution of the drapery poor, yet the statue at once arrests the attention of any one with a true feeling for Greek art, standing out markedly from the weak ideal and realistic works around. You see at once that the artist aimed at truthful presentment, and did not shirk one single characteristic of his subject. With a rare courage, he represented nature, and not nature of the highest type. The result is, that you are convinced that the excellence of the statue is real, and that the grand expression of both face and figure is as true as their heaviness and want of refinement. Had the bold lines of that face been put on a theatrical figure like that of a Roman lady near it, all its merit as a portrait would not have convinced you that it was truthful. Thus our Berenice or Cleopatra may take its place, not in its execution, but in the breadth and courage of its design, by the side of the Elgin marbles. It is very instructive to compare it with the only other Greek portrait-statue of good time in the Museum, that of Mausolus. The friezes of the Mausoleum show a great decline since the days of Phidias. The king's statue is worthy of a place in the Parthenon. This seeming anomaly is explained by the circumstance that portrait-art flourishes when ideal art has decayed or is dead. Ideal portraiture is, however, the immediate successor of ideal art. The face of Mausolus, indeed, strikes one as realistic, but the expression is probably idealized, and the attitude and even proportions are manifestly ideal. The queen's face is not merely devoid of idealism, but unfeelingly executed, and there is not the slightest attempt to help nature in the figure. This could have been done without departing from a bold and broad model. The technical execution throughout, but more especially in the drapery, shows a great decline. The date, therefore, may be reasonably put at least a century after that of the Mausoleum. If we next compare it with the statues of Roman ladies here and elsewhere, we perceive, from the marked difference already indicated, that it must be of at least a century before the age of Augustus. It is most reasonable, therefore, to place it midway between the periods of Scopas and of the early artists of the Graeco-Roman school, or in the second century B.C. The work would, therefore, belong to the school of Lysippus, and though free, in all essential points, from the mannerism which characterized that artist and his followers, it shows their influence in the elongated deep grooves of the drapery, which are false to reality, and do not seem to be found till after the age of Scopas; otherwise it is the production of a very independent mind and hand.

The other statues may be separated into those of divinities and portraits of the Roman period. The former are generally poor, and either originals or copies of a very late period, some, perhaps, as late as the age of Hadrian. There are a few exceptions. The best are two statuettes, both broken, which are probably the earliest works brought home by the discoverers. Next to these is the smaller of two statues of Bacchus, which, notwithstanding its meagreness and false refinement, shows great skill in execution. The size of the head, which is unusually large, is remarkably repugnant to the canon of Lysippus. A small statue of Jupiter Ammon is noticeable as probably the only representation, excepting on coins, of this divinity; in style it is extremely poor.

The portrait-statues are all characterized by the fault of the later Graeco-Roman school, that of the time of Hadrian and the Antonines, to which they generally belong, one, at least, being a little earlier. They show an art which had ceased to be dramatic and had become wholly theatrical. Perhaps the best is the colossal statue of Hadrian, but it must be remembered that the body of this work, as already observed, may be of an earlier date. A statue of a lady, of the same age, above life-size, is remarkably good in the realistic treatment of the face, where, however, we look in vain for either dignity or sweetness. There are also striking busts of Antoninus Pius and Lucius Verus, and heads of Aelius Cæsar and ladies of the same period. Compared with modern portraits these are excellent; compared with even poor copies of Greek portraits, they fall into their true place, which is not a high one in the scale of art.

Several curious points in ancient art are illustrated by this collection. The question of the colouring of sculpture is touched, but not resolved, for the only coloured statue is one of Pan, painted red, and it is well known that such statues of this and like subjects were coloured. There are remains of red paint upon the drapery of the Apollo. In two cases the eyes of the statues were of paste or some similar substance. There are several statuettes of Venus, all found in the remains of a temple, which would appear to indicate the practice of offering objects of this kind. They are copies of a late date, all in bad taste, all but one badly executed. The value of this collection, as illustrating Greek art, is to be estimated

rather from a consideration of the genuineness and untouched state of all its monuments than from their individual excellence, rather from their bearing as a whole upon the history of Greek art than from any one of them, that of the queen excepted, forming a landmark in its annals. When the Museum has ample room in its sculpture-galleries we shall be able to see what a large addition of authentic works Cyrene has contributed to our exhibition of ancient art.

#### CHARLES DE BERNARD.

In the literary history of Louis Philippe's reign a conspicuous place belongs to the novelists. Many of them, it cannot be contested, possessed powers of a very high order, and exercised an unusual influence on the opinions and feelings of the generation to which they belonged. It was a period peculiarly favourable to literature and men of letters. The Government was the nearest approach to political liberty that France had yet seen; the freedom of the press had opened a career for successful journalists; and the tranquillity that prevailed in France and in Europe gave to literature a power which, in more troubled times, belongs to the men of action. Of that power the novelists had their fair, or perhaps more than their fair share, and in some cases no doubt abused it. If it be possible for books to do actual mischief, it is difficult not to believe that the terrible cynicism of some of the modern French novelists, and the atrocious and unblushing immorality of others, have been productive of much and unmixed evil. Unfortunately the largest amount of immediate popularity was the reward of those writers, who, by brilliancy of style and unexampled fertility of imagination, were able to clothe the worst immorality and scepticism in the most attractive colours. But, at the same time, many works of remarkable merit were produced by the writers of fiction, in which a severe criticism would find little to complain of, either with regard to matter or form. Though there were many novels written which seemed to exhaust every conceivable form of nauseous impurity, there was a large portion of light literature altogether untainted by the confusion of feelings and principles which pervaded the more extravagant writers of the period. The liberty which existed under the new Government was not always abused, though, no doubt, there were some notorious examples of writers who appeared to be influenced by the same feeling of reaction which in our own country, in the days of Restoration, produced a literature and a drama which were a disgrace to a civilized community. Among the political writers and thinkers there prevailed a strange anarchy of opinion, which led to the promulgation of the marvellous theories of which the Revolution of 1848 witnessed the development and fruit. And the world of literature was so closely united with the world of politics that the aberrations of the one could not fail to be represented by the eccentricities of the other; many of the novelists were to some extent politicians, and often believed that under the form of a very naughty story they were announcing a great idea and preaching a new political or social creed. They had most of them commenced their career as journalists, and, by the connections formed in that position, had become more or less pledged to political parties; it was to be expected that some of them would turn out as great anarchists in literature as Louis Blanc and Proudhon were in politics. But still, after making every possible allowance for the effect of the influence of the state of political opinion on the writers of the day, and after admitting the great power so lavishly displayed by many of the most popular French novelists, it is impossible not to underrate men who abused such noble gifts, whilst, at the same time, we must respect and admire those who were able to resist the blandishments of ephemeral applause, and who were content to trust good and conscientious work to the matured judgment of a public which they had neither caressed nor outraged.

To the latter class De Bernard peculiarly belongs. He never reached the popularity which fell to the share of Balzac, Eugene Sue, and the prolific Alexander Dumas. His career was a short one, and his works, if tested by avoirdupois weight, could not be compared with those of many of his contemporaries. He never attempted the easy and novel task of changing the moral relations of life and inaugurating the regeneration of the human race. He did not find a religious system by abolishing the First Cause, or suggest improvements in the practical morality of life by the substitution of elective affinities for the old-fashioned institution of the marriage tie. He never denounced the rights of property as an unchristian institution; he never declared that adultery is a duty. Reticence on such subjects, whether prompted by a real or simulated respect for the opinion of the sounder portion of society, made it impossible for him to compete, in the popular estimation, with those of his rivals, whose brilliant paradoxes and cynical criticism by turns astonished and enchanted the Parisian public. It necessarily followed that his success was slow. Indeed, it may be doubted if at any time he became a popular favourite, notwithstanding the high commendations bestowed upon him by discerning critics. In every art the conscientious labourer must run the risk of having to contend against a false or a meretricious taste, but it is no slight praise for the artist if he can keep his own work free from the taint of such influences, and if he can persevere courageously to the end unmoved by the eulogies which he hears given to those whose work is more in unison with the prevailing taste, and undisturbed in his convictions with regard to the principles of his art and the objects towards which his art ought to be directed. It is a considerable sacrifice to abandon the chance of immediate success to competitors who are fighting with less honourable weapons, and it is often dangerous and always



unprofitable to wait for the well-considered verdict of posterity, which has nothing but praise to give to the most meritorious author. It is the true test of literary men,—it tries alike the strength of their convictions and their courage. In these observations it is of course to be understood that we only speak of authors who have given proof of ability, and who have made literature the study and the object of their lives. Heaven forbid that we should say one word to ruffle the conceit of those placid amateurs who concentrate the results of an uneducated youth in a silver fork novel or a wild High Church rhapsody. But with real men of letters independence is the first condition of any success that is worth having. "Tom Jones" would have not been worth reading now if Fielding had been trying to write himself into a government office or the representation of the city of Westminster. The genuine artist ought to be unconscious, but he must be thoroughly independent in opinion and sentiment; for in modern times the flattery of the public, or particular sections of it, is far more dangerous to real art than the adulation which, in the days of Louis XIV., was so plentifully offered to the royal and noble patrons of literature.

It is one of the great merits of De Bernard that his works are absolutely free from the baneful influences to which we have adverted. When you read either his shorter sketches or his more elaborate novels you only feel that he is making the best story that he can out of his materials. The reader's mind is never crossed with a suspicion that the author is a preacher of a new doctrine under the guise of a novelist. The novel is there for what it is worth, but to write a good and amusing novel is obviously the sole aim of the author. What his observation of life and analysis of character have taught him comes out in the regular development of his drama and his personages. If a moral is to be drawn from a careful delineation of human life, it is there for the reader to make the best of it that he can; but De Bernard is content to work out his drama to the end without informing the public that he has a mission to improve them, and without intimating the moral purpose of his work. The construction of his stories is generally very good, and the plots, seldom very intricate, are sufficient to keep up the interest to the end. In the delineation of some classes of characters he is peculiarly happy, and it may be said generally that the persons introduced are distinctly defined individualities, whose characters are brought out by their actions and their words in the progress of the story more than by the description and explanations of the author. It is obvious that this is one of the most important elements of a good novel, for unless the personages act and tell their own story, the dramatic character of the novel is lost, and the interest is gone as far as most readers are concerned. De Bernard's actors converse like people made of flesh and blood, though in some instances they have a good deal more wit than one often encounters in real life. However, the dialogue is often very sparkling, and never other than refined. All his work seems to have been very carefully finished. Judging from the quantity which he has left and the time during which he was recognized as a popular writer, we should conclude that he gave ample time and thought to all that he produced,—in a word, that he never became a hack writer.

He was, in truth, less of a literary adventurer than many of his more celebrated contemporaries. Descended from an ancient and noble family in Franche Comté, he was by birth and choice a royalist, and commenced his career as an author by contributions to a royalist journal at Besançon. In 1832 he went to Paris at the solicitation of Balzac, who had sought his acquaintance in consequence of a criticism written by De Bernard on the "Peau de Chagrin." He first published a volume of poems, of which the success was not sufficient to induce him to remain at Paris. Three years later he returned, and created a favourable impression by some of his tales that were published in the *Chronique de Paris*, and by a piece that was performed at the Gymnase. His other works appeared at different intervals until the close of the year 1847, when broken health forced him to abandon all work. He lingered for two years in extreme suffering, and died in 1850, at the age of forty-six. Thus, it will be seen, all his labours as an author were completed within fourteen years—a period scarcely long enough for him to reach the popularity which he undoubtedly deserved. It is, however, but just to add, that from the first his talents were detected and appreciated by the literary coteries of Paris. Balzac was from the first a steady friend to him, and always predicted for him a great success. At one time he attempted to induce De Bernard to give himself to historical novels, and confidently anticipated that his promising young friend would produce a work that would be to France what "Ivanhoe" is to England and "Old Mortality" to Scotland. Happily the advice was not followed. When De Bernard was at Paris he was clear-sighted enough to perceive that the day of Mediaeval romance was gone, and instead of attempting what at best would have only been a brilliant imitation, he set himself to describe the manners of a society which he had carefully observed, and quickly showed that he possessed a rare originality and depth of thought. There is not one of his contemporaries to whom he bears any resemblance, although it was at one time suggested that he was the pupil and imitator, as well as the friend, of Balzac. But it needs a very slight acquaintance with the works of the latter to understand how little ground there is for such an accusation. In style and in the choice and treatment of their subjects there is not the least similarity between the two writers; and in the painting of character their methods are diametrically opposite. Balzac, with exuberant imagination, creates a number of personages who are utterly unreal, and never

succeeds in making his reader believe that they are otherwise. In the voluminous series which he calls the "Comédie Humaine," there is a large variety of types of character, but always exaggerated, if not monstrous and repulsive. Those novels may be read once with pleasure, and the attention of the reader will be fixed by the novelty of the matter, and the power which they indisputably show. But few people, we apprehend, would be disposed to return to the phantom forms of Balzac's novels as they do to the genial and human creations of Fielding and Miss Austen. Now, in De Bernard's novels, the *dramatis personæ* are so many human beings such as might be met with any day in French society; their differences of character are given with a fine and discriminating touch—no two of them are alike; but they all have so much of real nature in them, that the reader cannot help feeling pleasure even in those which are designed by the writer to be ridiculous or odious. It would be more just to class De Bernard with Marivaux and *Prévost*, than to assign him a place in the modern schools of French novelists. He was not an imitator of either of them; but there is a certain similarity of method in his and in their treatment of character. Like them he tries to make his character natural, and never seeks to startle by extravagance and exaggeration. We may also add that his view of life is a healthy one; his social criticism is genial and humorous; his moral judgments are carefully considered, and are sound without being severe. After reading Balzac or Eugène Sue, or George Sand, every one must be conscious of a feeling of painful weariness and disgust at the human race and its destinies, which is more or less poignant in proportion as the reader yields to the charm of the Siren. If a young person of either sex and of an impressionable character had the misfortune to fall under the spell of any one of the three writers we have mentioned, it is to be feared that there might ensue, at least for a time, an unsound if not a diseased state of mind, combined with a profound disgust for society as it at present exists. It does not appear to us to be within the proper functions of a novelist, to produce such a crisis in the minds of his readers. It is not the business of the novelist to terrify by ruthless dissection of the best feelings of human nature, or to shake the foundations of belief by testing everything by a standard of cynical scepticism. Fielding and Smollett never spared the vices of their age, but notwithstanding some faults, which their greatest admirers must condemn, can never have exercised an unwholesome influence upon their readers. The reason of it is plain. Both of them, though sometimes needlessly and inexcusably coarse, were vigorous and healthy-minded men, and their faults in taste and in language are forgotten, from the sterling merit of their works and the manly spirit which pervades them. Charles de Bernard is not liable to the same accusations as the two great English novelists, but some of his critics have complained, as we think, without reason, that in one or two instances he has sacrificed his moral sense to the exigencies of his plot, and the opportunities of displaying his wit. That seems to us to be a shallow and an unjust view. It is true that so far from representing humanity as perfect, or as being capable of perfection, he has a clear critical eye for the faults of individuals, and the ignorance and injustice of society; but in no case do we see him revelling in impurity or distorting the principles of right and wrong. He was too conscientious to flatter mankind by assuming that virtue reigned supreme in a society of which he knew the defects and shortcomings, but at the same time he had too much faith in humanity to believe that the whole world was peopled only with felons and fools.

It is said that of late his works have been more widely read in France, and it is probable that his popularity will increase rather than diminish. It will be felt that he has given a careful and truthful picture of French society during that interesting period when it seemed that a political system was at last established on a fixed and permanent basis, and whilst a revolution was preparing which took equally by surprise the statesmen and the men of letters. "L'Homme Sérieux," a delicious satire on the Parliamentary system of the day, and the "Gentilhomme Campagnard," an exquisite picture of life in the provinces, will, no doubt, be read with interest when many of the more successful novels of the same period are utterly forgotten.

#### MR. FRITH'S "RAILWAY STATION."

MR. FRITH's picture is really a poor affair; the £9,187. 10s. paid for it by Mr. Flatou, the advertising and touting of the owner, even the cleverness and dexterity of the painter, cannot disguise the fact. We incline to think, indeed, that the public will not be far from coming to the same conclusion; popular as is the subject, popular the artist, and popularity-hunting the devices which have been and will be adopted to make the work a "screaming success"—screaming as a railway-whistle. It is by no means so attractive or pleasant a picture as the "Ramsgate Sands" or the "Derby Day;" and, if (which we much doubt) it reaches an equal point of popularity, the result may, probably, be due as much to the prestige of the old works as to the charms of the new one. Perhaps the main cause of its inferiority is one for which Mr. Frith is not responsible—except indeed, that he need not have chosen the subject—we mean the change from clear, airy, out-of-door scenery and associations, to the crammed vacuity and littered orderlessness of the railway station at Paddington, with its clayey grey iron columns and roofing occupying the upper space generally of the whole picture, and hanging like a blight over the rest of it. Below these comes another unsightly feature—the long line of brown carriages. But, even apart from this, the picture certainly cannot sustain the comparison with its two precursors—second-rate as they also were in many essentials of conception and execution.

We pass now to the petty family execrations, the usual, pulls her hair, ten years old, who carries a basket along with the fat, stalwart porter painted from the life, the precious contents of the "fine" family. Mr. Frith has assembled, to pay, some eleven chair decorations and hopes nobod probably being a cricket-bat, and an unfortunate

treatment. The subject is not a specially suggestive one by any means; though telling, through its being so familiar and so plethoric of figures and details of incident. People at a railway station are in a state of bustling transition, or of vacant shambling expectation: strong passions and emotions and vital interests are, no doubt, rife amid the throng, and involved in the motives which have brought them together at that particular spot; but the predominant influence of the moment is to get this stage of it well over, and have done with it, as neither time nor privacy serves. One may pick out touching or startling incidents from the ferment; but to paint, as Mr. Frith does here, a panorama of a railway station, is to paint a tableau of Discomfort on its good behaviour. If, however, the subject is not one of great value, the treatment, in point of selection of incident, offers nothing to object to; it is as natural, various, effective, and pleasing as could well be managed. Yet it is necessarily of a kind which leaves the work deficient in unity or permanence of impression. The picture is not vividly dramatic, nor tender and pathetic, nor broad, solid, and portrait-like in its exhibition of social life, these being the three forms in which modern subjects are chiefly capable of being treated with a great result: it belongs to the class of pictures to which Mr. Hicks has contributed the "General Post-office," the "Dividend Day at the Bank," and the "Billingsgate Market;" and there is little to place Mr. Frith's picture above those of Mr. Hicks. In passing from the more intellectual phase of the treatment to the artistic—the skill and harmony of painting and realization—we find very slender grounds for commendation. The effect of the work as a whole is null; the colour, greatly oppressed by difficulties to which we have already adverted, makes no head against them, not even by beautiful or exquisite points of mere detail; the handling and surface are, taken in the lump, thin and poor, with an air of slackness, as if the task had ceased to interest the painter before he was halfway through it. There is a look of hurry also, as if he had worked against time, and could have benefited the picture considerably by giving it an extra two months' attention. In all respects the merits of the work are moderate; slender enough, it may be, to damage the very conspicuous position which Mr. Frith occupies in popular favour; not strong enough, certainly, to do more than, at the utmost, leave that position unimpaired. One need not spend much regret upon this prospect. If Mr. Frith does come a little blazed out of the ordeal, the cause of art will suffer less than the interests of Mr. Flatou.

The picture presents a number of distinct groups, of which seven may be accounted principal. The main contrast is at the right-hand corner. It is a startling contrast, and in some sense not an effective one, the two incidents not having anything in common which would enable the one to serve as a kind of counterbalance to the other. Still each of the incidents is well introduced, and the two together mark the wide range of life which the subject can be made to cover. The first incident is a bride and bridegroom starting on their tour, and their new portion in life. The bride, dressed in bright fawn-colour, takes a regretfully happy leave of her two bridesmaids, sisters of her own; the hinder bridesmaid presses with her lemon-gloved hand the lavender glove of the bride resting upon the other sister's shoulder. The newly-wedded left hand is linked in the arm of the bridegroom, who is giving (sentiment be hanged!) directions to a servant for the disposal of the lady's leather dressing-case. Two small children, also a sister and brother of the bride, clamour their sorrow at her departure, and receive consolation from a nurse. The value of this group in redeeming the prose of the whole subject might be considerable, if the figures were superior in beauty and refinement—but this is not the case. The bride is at best tolerably good-looking in a common way, and the bridegroom tends to being a snob. The sympathetic and well-chiselled face of the further bridesmaid is the best point. The whole family, though clearly intended to be aristocratic, have in reality an underbred air and get-up; including the over-dressing of the bridesmaids, and the artificial curls of the little boy in green velvet. The second and contrasting incident, of which the next carriage is the scene, is the arrest of a criminal—forgiver, fraudulent bankrupt, or what not,—by two detective officers, painted from the actual men, Brett and Haydon; the former of whom accosts, with fatal civility, the criminal as he steps into the carriage, while the latter holds the handcuffs. The felon turns frightfully leaden-pale inside his travelling wraps; his nerveless right hand droops, losing the leather bag, the left still holds the jamb of the carriage which he is never to enter. The guard, who had opened the carriage-door, remains there impassive to the catastrophe; as impulsive as an old gentleman seated inside, who continues reading his newspaper. Another denizen of the carriage is in a very different frame of mind—the criminal's female travelling companion; she starts up, her left hand to her mouth and cheek, in a spasm of terror. This figure, very expressive, and in all respects quietly treated, is one of the best in the picture.

We pass now to the other five principal groups. No. 1 may be called the petty family excursionist group. A plain, hot matron, in a red shawl, fussy as usual, pulls her bonnet forward over her dingy curls; she leads her daughter, ten years old, with the provision-basket. The father holds the hand of a younger son in knickerbockers, whose action of running is not successfully rendered, and who carries a birdcage covered with yellow gauze,—to give the bird an airing along with the family, it may be inferred. No. 2 is the porter's truck group. A stalwart porter pushes forward his heavy-laden truck; the luggage includes a basket to which a young woman, whose back is turned, gives a final touch, lest the precious contents should suffer. No. 3 is the schoolboy group. A would-be "fine" family (so they appear in the picture, whether purposely or because Mr. Frith has unconsciously blundered out of the elegant into the stuck-up) are assembled, to part from two of the boys who are going to school. The elder boy, some eleven years of age, is no doubt returning after holidays; a new watch-chain decorates his breast; tears are on his cheeks, but he leaves them unwiped, and hopes nobody has noticed such a sign of weakness. The younger boy is probably being escorted to school for the first time by his brother; he holds a cricket-bat, and takes leave of his mother, who stoops down to kiss him. There an unfortunately dressy look in this figure, and the costume, though conspicuous,

has no pictorial beauty which would benefit the composition. The father lays his hand upon the elder boy's shoulder; his face is of a poor kind, and seems intended to express an amount of subdued feeling beyond anything which the occasion calls for. A sister of fifteen, and a boy of five, who holds a toy-whip, and whose attention is diverted by the crowd and the strange scene, complete the group. No. 4 is the Frenchman and cabman group. An extortionate cabman, not an ill-looking fellow, nor in any way overdone, has followed his fare on to the platform, and holds out to him in his open palm the crown or half-crown which pays twice his legal, and not the whole of his asserted, claim. The Frenchman, yellow-complexioned, in a furred over-coat, and with dangling pouch and other travelling accessories, looks at him as a poor Frenchman would look in such case, and handles his porte-monnaie in a way ominous of giving in; he divines the imposition, but stands unretorting, half in incapacity to comprehend the arguments and details, half in mere helplessness. This figure is in all respects very satisfactory. The Frenchman has a wife, however, who, with the feminine instinct of coin-preservation, is by no means so tamely disposed to submit. Lean, blonde, and high-featured, she holds up the index-finger of her gloved right hand, and urges her husband to resistance. "Mais c'est infime!" flows from her thin lips, mingled with the sounds of "Etranger" and "Policeman." No. 5 is the recruiting group. A recruiting sergeant tosses up his baby, to be kissed in its descent, and consigned to the arms of its mother, who has come to see him off. A sturdy navvy recruit examines his railway ticket; a blackguard about-town recruit sucks his stick, and drags down his under-lip with it, as his widowed mother sobs on his shoulder; he disregards the *Punch* offered by a newsboy. He is, on the whole, not a little "down in the mouth," and less an ingrained rascal than a low fool with a natural tendency to continue sinking.

Besides these, there are several minor groups and figures, including some of the best things in the picture. A porter points to a white poodle on the arm of an old lady, who asks whether the pet may not be allowed to go with her, though she knows the prohibition well; her hatted daughter frowns and sulks. A keeper couples two setters for the dog-box. An old man, white-whiskered and feeble, in a travelling-cap, leans upon the arms of his two daughters, with apathetic placidity, his big dogskin gloves, baggy to the shrivelled hands, hanging downwards. The elder daughter looks solicitously at him; the younger gazes forward with the blank glance of one determined not to see the intercepting newsboy. An elderly gentleman bound on a fishing excursion pushes on to be in time. Two Volunteers have come down to have an afternoon's shooting practice. A seaman, with a sensible, honest face, takes leave of his baby, with his finger to its soft cheek. His left hand is round the shoulder of the mother; her red eyes, and blubbered, anxious face, fixed upon the baby, that she may not look at her husband, and burst out crying, are extremely true; and the group altogether constitutes one of the most thoroughly successful among all. A youth and girl kiss at the carriage-door; a naval officer looks round, as he would be likely to do, to see the same operation performed by two girls upon the platform. Porters and signalmen load the luggage upon the carriage-roofs, or pass upon their several errands. The engine at the extreme end of the station, already attached to the train, snorts for the start.

We have thus gone through the varied incidents of the picture, which the reader will perceive to be judiciously selected, and to the best points of which we have aimed at doing justice in no grudging spirit. The light is diffused and easy, without any traces of direct sunshine; the effect tends rather to chilliness, in consequence of this and of the cold hues of the railway-station itself. There is no group of figures, nor single figure, nor item of any kind, eminent for beauty or elegance, or capable of raising the picture out of the class of prosaic work, contemplated by an ordinary mind, and realized by a hand of adequate skill, but of no exceptional power or special faculty. It is, we repeat, with whatever merit of passages, upon the whole a poor affair.

#### MEN OF MARK.—No. XXXVIII.

##### THE RIGHT HON. J. W. HENLEY, M.P.

JOSEPH WARNER HENLEY, of Waterperry, Oxfordshire, only son of Joseph Henley, Esq., by the daughter of C. Rooke, Esq., of Wandsworth, was born in 1793. He entered himself of Magdalen College, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. 1815. Two years afterwards he married the fourth daughter of the late John Fane, Esq. (a member of the Westmoreland family), and Lady Elizabeth Fane. He at first devoted himself to agricultural pursuits, but gradually began to take an active part in county and magisterial business. He had long been regarded as one of the shrewdest and most active magistrates of the county, when, at the general election of 1841, he was invited to succeed Mr. Parker on the Conservative interest as one of the three representatives of Oxfordshire. He has ever since represented his native county, nor has his seat been in the smallest degree jeopardized on the one or two occasions when the representation was contested.

When Mr. Henley entered the House of Commons he was nearly fifty years of age. Disraeli, General Peel, Pakington, Walpole, Jolliffe—all the Conservative Ministers with whom he became politically associated, were his seniors in parliamentary life and experience. Few men who enter the House of Commons at an age so mature ever obtain a leading position in that assembly. Mr. Henley's abilities and indomitable industry, however, soon began to attract the notice of the House and gain the confidence of his party. Sir R. Peel was then entering upon the course of commercial policy which ended in the repeal of the corn laws, and which Mr. Henley, with Lord G. Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli, regarded with a suspicion that in 1846 broke out into open mutiny against Sir R. Peel, and the renunciation of his leadership.

The Bull of Pope Pius IX., parcelling out England into twelve new dioceses, over which Cardinal Wiseman was appointed to preside, led to the introduction, in 1851, of the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. Mr. Henley took a prominent part in the debates, and warmly supported Mr. Walpole and Sir F. Thesiger in their successful attempts to make the bill more stringent and

severe. The Legislature adopted these amendments from a desire to repudiate the pretensions of the Romish Church, and to repel the assertion that the people of England were wavering in their fidelity to the Protestant institutions and Protestant faith of the empire. Yet Mr. Henley and the over-zealous Protestant lawyers who grafted their persecuting enactments upon the Ministerial measure are scarcely to be congratulated upon their handiwork. The Papal Aggression Bill revived the dim and obsolete terrors of a forgotten statute, only in turn to become dim and obsolete.

A more essential service was rendered by Mr. Henley in the reform of the Court of Chancery. A Royal Commission was issued to inquire into the practice of the Courts of Equity, with the view of curing the vexatious delays and ruinous expenses of suits in Chancery. The most eminent lawyers were nominated as members of the commission, but it was also considered desirable that the "lay" as well as legal element should be represented, and the late Sir James Graham and Mr. Henley consented to serve upon the commission. They devoted themselves to the inquiry with characteristic zeal and ardour, became thoroughly interested in their work, and rendered important assistance, which the legal members of the commission took every opportunity of acknowledging. Sir James Graham was justifiably proud of his share in the work of Chancery Reform. In reviewing his political career in 1852 he said:—"The other day, when out of office, unbought, and without any personal object, I devoted almost the whole of my time to a commission to inquire into the abuses of the Court of Chancery, from which has emanated that measure of Chancery Reform for which Lord Derby's Government takes so much credit. I am very glad to have contributed my assistance; but, in justice, let it be remembered my aid was given." Mr. Henley may make the same claim, and deserves the same credit. With better fortune he lived to become a member of the Ministry that carried a measure founded upon the report of the commission, and simplifying and cheapening the procedure of the Courts of Equity.

When Lord Derby took office in 1852, some caustic witticisms were uttered about a Ministry composed of "chairmen of Quarter Sessions." Mr. Henley was one of the offenders attempted to be placed under a brand for taking an active part in county business, and the administration of justice in his shire. But the Whigs had never had a clear working majority in the Commons since the downfall of Sir Robert Peel. The stamp of feebleness and incompetence had been upon their measures, and when Lord John Russell had the temerity to dismiss Lord Palmerston from the post of Foreign Secretary, the Government degenerated into a family party—a "Cabinet of cousins"—a batch of "Greys," presided over by a feeble and "used up" Premier. Lord Derby's Ministerial arrangements were therefore discussed in a very friendly and tolerant spirit. Mr. Henley was offered the post of President of the Board of Trade, with a seat in the Cabinet. People asked whether the head of this department ought not to have been a merchant, rather than a country gentleman; but those who knew Mr. Henley's industry and tastes, and had seen his library crowded with American and other foreign newspapers, prophesied that he would be a safe and sagacious Minister, and fully up to his work, as indeed the event proved.

Before, however, the new Cabinet Minister could take his seat in the House of Commons, it was necessary to go down into Oxfordshire, and present himself before his constituents. The public mind was at this moment (March, 1852) in a state of much disquietude. The cry of "protection to agriculture" had been the sole bond of union between the party of which Mr. Henley was a member, since the passing of the great Free-trade measure of 1846. The Protectionist press had never ceased to express a confident belief in the reversal of a Free-trade policy, and Protectionist squires had found it their interest and policy to nourish the illusion, and to join in calumniating the memory of the "arch-traitor," Sir Robert Peel. A Protectionist Ministry was now in office, and the agriculturists were naturally elated at the prospect before them. The Anti-Corn Law League was resuscitated, and under the leadership of Mr. Cobden, and, emboldened by the *prestige* of past victories over a much more powerful and united party than that led by Lord Derby, prepared to do battle against Protection. All the vaticinations of the Protectionist party had been falsified. Since the passing of Peel's bill, viz. in five years, there had been imported fifty million quarters of grain! According to the predictions of Mr. Henley and his school of political economists, the Bank of England ought not to have had in 1852 more than five millions of gold in its coffers. Yet when Mr. Henley stood before his constituents as President of the Board of Trade, the Bank had no less than nineteen millions in its vaults, and was suffering from an absolute plethora of gold. It had been announced that no more £5 notes were to be issued, and the country seemed to be approaching a metallic currency. The cheap loaf had, moreover, carried plenty and contentment into the cottages of the labouring classes. Trade had never been established on a sounder or more healthy basis. Commerce had never been conducted with fewer vicissitudes. Wages had been good and employment steady. The middle and professional classes had been able to bear the burden of an onerous and unjust income-tax. The public exchequer had exhibited a handsome and increasing surplus, amounting in that particular year of grace to £3,000,000. The Protectionists had never ceased to prophesy that the foreign corn imported would be paid for, not in goods, but in specie. It happened, however, that exports had increased, and the produce of the Customs and Excise in every year since 1846 had incontestably shown that at no former period had the working classes been able to command a larger share of the substantial comforts of life. Would Lord Derby propose, and would the country tolerate, another bread-tax? People eagerly turned to the addresses of the members of the new Government. It was found they had, one and all, carefully avoided the use of the word "Protection." The public, under these circumstances, were equally divided in opinion—one half thinking that the Derby-Disraeli Cabinet meant to deceive the farmers, while the other half were equally sure they intended to deceive the Free-traders. Perhaps they were both fated to be the victims of subterfuge, for symptoms were not wanting that the new administration had entered upon a tortuous and trimming course, which savoured more of the "dodges" of thimble-rigging than of the lofty resolves of high-principled statesmen. The new elections were therefore regarded with extraordinary interest.

We will ask the reader to accompany the new Cabinet Minister to the Oxford County Hall. The hustings exhibit a goodly array of Protectionist squires, Oxford heads of colleges and other university dons, and bull-frog farmers. The body of the hall is crowded with the citizens of Oxford of

all ranks, a few undergraduates in cap and gown, and a sprinkling of agricultural labourers, who come with their masters to shout for Protection, but who, in their hearts, "woundily" admire a cheap loaf. The townspeople are in the majority, and it is easy to see that if the new Minister were not a man more than ordinarily respected for his moderation and single-mindedness, there would be an outbreak and disturbance, so little intention have the people of Oxford to allow any Government to put on a bread-tax again. Two respectable Conservative gentlemen having duly proposed and seconded Mr. Henley, an opposition suddenly springs up.

In every country town there is some ardent patriot to be found who, having, as a temperance lecturer or itinerant preacher, got over the fear and dread which ordinary men have of the echo of their own voices, comes forward on occasions like the present, to give his oratorical talents a little airing, and show the world that he possesses the dangerous faculty of "thinking on his legs." These are sometimes useful men. They have thought a little, and set those thinking who have not thought at all. A man of this class now starts up and proposes a candidate,—of course for the purpose of making a speech, and teasing the Oxfordshire Tory squires. He says a good many foolish things, but makes one or two hits, and brings out clearly enough the feeling of the meeting in favour of free trade and the cheap loaf.

To him follows the new President of the Board of Trade. He is vague, misty, and by no means explicit upon the great question of the day and the policy of the Government. Free-trade has falsified his prophecies. Does he honestly confess it? No. He looks about for subsidiary and reconnoitring causes, and resolutely refuses to see the master-service of Free-trade. "The Irish famine and emigration had cleared the labour market, and therefore there was more employment for the working-classes at better wages." Was this really, good Mr. Henley, the reason why the manufacturing operatives had been employed? Had it ever occurred to you that by taking the agricultural produce of other countries we had enabled them to buy our manufactures in return? The new President of the Board of Trade did not appear to have got quite so far as this in the alphabet of political economy. He attributed a good deal of the national prosperity to the Irish famine, and fathered a little agricultural distress upon the recent discoveries of gold in Australia and California. But the wise and beautiful aphorism of Kossuth, that "the instinct of the million is wiser than the wisdom of the wisest" was about to receive another illustration. A working man in the body of the Hall, preferring the practical to the speculative, shouted in a stentorian voice:—"We don't want to know about that. What wages did you give when bread was eleven-pence? Now it's five-pence!" The new Minister found it inconvenient to notice or reply to this interrogatory; yet "ever and anon" as he went out of his way to discover the influences of Californian gold, and to expatiate upon the anomalies of "full gaols and empty workhouses," this stern voice from the common work-day world called him back from the land of dreams and theories to "bread at five-pence, when it used to be eleven-pence, and wages the same." Whether Mr. Henley had come down into Oxfordshire believing it possible to re-enact a bread-tax, it is impossible to say. But those who saw him on the hustings before this public meeting, and observed the hold which one or two little facts like that of the man in the fustian jacket had upon the public mind, did not doubt that, if he had persuaded himself a return to Protection was possible, he went back to Parliament a wiser man and a more accommodating statesman. Within a week afterwards the Protectionist bubble had burst. Lord Derby declared that he did not desire to reverse the Free-trade policy of Sir R. Peel, and announced that he would not propose even a moderate fixed duty unless there was—not a bare majority, but—a "general concurrence of opinion" in favour of a duty on corn.

The new Ministers, when they took their seats, were courteous and conciliatory in their demeanour, and assumed, as if by intuition, the official language and manner of the Treasury bench. Mr. Henley, during the few months (March to December, 1852) that he remained at the Board of Trade, suggested some useful reforms, and in fact discharged the duties of his office most creditably. When he retired into Opposition, he kept up his acquaintance with the trade and commerce of the country, and became an intelligent critic in all matters relative to the department over which he had so ably presided.

Mr. Henley owes his high position in the estimation of the House of Commons at least as much to his reputation for honesty as to his shrewdness and intellectual power. He has strong and decided opinions upon National Education, as well as other topics, and as Sir John Pakington is rather more liberal, and equally sincere, it commonly happened that during the interval between 1852, when the Conservatives retired into Opposition, and 1858, when they returned to office, Mr. Henley went into one division lobby and Sir J. Pakington into the other. In April, 1856, Lord J. Russell compelled to relinquish the hope of connecting his name with a truly national system of education, came forward with a proposition to extend the Minutes of the Committee of Privy Council, and to permit an education rate to be levied under certain circumstances. Sir James Graham and Mr. Gladstone, however, declared themselves on the side of voluntaryism in education; and when Mr. Henley, who had an amendment condemnatory of the noble lord's scheme, professed his willingness to withdraw it, so that nothing might interpose between the House and an aye or no on Lord John's resolution, Mr. Gladstone and the Peelite converts to voluntaryism insisted on Mr. Henley's amendment being put. Into the lobby against Lord John went a most heterogeneous assemblage of High Churchmen, Low Churchmen, Evangelical dissenters, high-flying Tories, extreme Radicals, peace-at-all-prices advocates, Peelites, and Manchester men. The House was extremely full. The Speaker usually appoints the Government whippers-in as tellers when the House divides on a Government question; but to show how parties were divided on the question of education, he chose for tellers Mr. Henley and Sir F. Thesiger on one side, and Lord J. Russell and Sir J. Pakington on the other. Four tellers of such mark and distinction are seldom seen together; and if the subject had been one of less grave importance, the House might have been amused to notice that Lord J. Russell, who had seen, perhaps, more divisions taken than any man in the House, was so unused to play the part of a teller that he did not know where to stand or what to do, and had to be ranged and put in his place like a young member who makes his first appearance on the floor. When the tellers returned, all doubt as to the result of the division was at an end; 1 the cle the fol then L declared Lord J. victoriou sounded factions teated p elated w Lord J. lobby w rose high party, an Lord J. 1 Mr. H when Mr. Glad trasting t "You go and child delivered House do motion. sent Mr. H commendatio In Februar right hon. mittee of which Mr. resignation until Mr. H sealed until revelations, characters a ment are d no longer se above the gr Opposition question as a degree unlike so influentia from Parlia Derbyite Pre Conservative experience. Mr. Henley children of 1 has pleased been to aim achieved in the attend school, He is equally national school business; sus not want to s different curat element in edu strong impress its delivery su while speaking listened most a resumed his se been most gra respect and re political parties His style of s studied the art drawing the bac eloquent pre Mr. Henley's re verse and idioma dist and well d is hearing a f Commons has s Every one will Derby Reform of his latest sp debate:— The statement definite issue—" examination upo and sham?" (I under your own them or not? suddenly lets off pop-gun. (La excellence tha inition, and tr to be pretty particular m n. member (M officers," he sa business." But

end ; Mr. Henley, as chief teller of the victorious party, took the paper from the clerk. When the right hon. gentleman had ranged his men on the floor they marched up to the table, after the usual obeisances to the Speaker, in the following order :—right-hand man, Mr. Henley ; then Sir F. Thesiger, then Lord John, and, lastly, Sir J. Pakington. When Mr. Henley had declared the numbers in a loud and distinct voice, and when it appeared that Lord John had been defeated by a majority of 102, a cheer arose from the victorious Derby-Disraelites, Peelites, and Voluntaryists, that must have sounded in Lord John's ears like a yell of triumph from rival theological factions over the bodies and souls of the ignorant, uneducated, and unprotected portion of the youth of England. The Opposition were not a little elated with their victory, although Sir John Pakington was a co-teller with Lord John ; and Mr. Miles and other Conservative members went into the lobby with Lord Palmerston, Sir G. Grey, &c. Mr. Henley, after this victory, rose high in favour with Mr. Baines, Mr. G. Hadfield, and the Nonconformist party, and they would at that moment have preferred him as a Minister to Lord J. Russell or Lord Palmerston.

Mr. Henley took part in the debate on the China war, and on the night when Mr. Cobden's resolution was carried (March, 1857) he declared that we had "murdered"—a hard saying—untold numbers of persons in Canton. Mr. Gladstone, who followed in debate, drew a vivid rhetorical picture, contrasting the might of Great Britain and the helplessness of the Chinese. "You go to China, and make war upon those who stand before you as women and children. You can earn no glory in such warfare." This passage, delivered with consummate intonation and impressiveness, "brought the House down," and gained several converts, it was said, for Mr. Cobden's motion. The result was a Ministerial defeat and a general election, which sent Mr. Henley back to his constituents, only to be returned with renewed commendations and demonstrations of confidence.

In February, 1858, Lord Derby again offered the Board of Trade to the right hon. gentleman. When Parliament separated for the recess, a committee of the Conservative Cabinet framed the project of a Reform Bill, to which Mr. Walpole and Mr. Henley refused to give their adhesion. Their resignation was sent in, but postponed by Lord Derby's particular desire until Mr. Disraeli brought in the Government bill. It was carefully concealed until it could have its effect upon the "grand scene" of Mr. Disraeli's revelations, as the pyrotechnist of the theatre reserves his red fire until the characters are in position, and all the glories and resources of the establishment are displayed. On that night Mr. Henley and Mr. Walpole were no longer seen among their colleagues. They withdrew to the third bench just above the gangway, and have ever since retained the corresponding seats in Opposition. Yet as Lord Derby holds himself as free to consider the Reform question as if he had never brought in a Reform Bill, and as it is to the last degree unlikely he will repeat the proposition which cost him two colleagues so influential and respected, there appears to be no sufficient reason, apart from Parliamentary etiquette, why the Derbyite Home Secretary and the Derbyite President of the Board of Trade should not return to the front Conservative bench, which contains so many men of less weight and experience.

Mr. Henley's views on education are of the old school. He wishes the children of the poor to be fitted for "that station in life in which it has pleased God to call them." He holds that the modern tendency has been to aim over the heads of the pupils, to attempt more than can be achieved in the limited period during which the children in rural parishes attend school, and to teach many things which are useless and soon forgotten. He is equally decided in regard to the education and training of teachers for national schools. He would not have them overtaught, or above their business ; suspects that too many have set up for fine gentlemen ; and does not want to see a good schoolmaster forsake his calling to become an indifferent curate. He enforces, on all occasions, the necessity for the religious element in education. A speech of his last session on this subject made a strong impression upon the House. The right honourable gentleman during its delivery suffered greatly from a teasing asthmatic cough, which occasionally impedes his utterance, and compels him to make frequent pauses while speaking. The House, divided between admiration and sympathy, listened most attentively, and preserved a complete silence until Mr. Henley resumed his seat, when a loud and universal cheer arose, which must have been most gratifying to him. This little incident showed the universal respect and regard which is entertained for Mr. Henley by men of all political parties.

His style of speaking is unpretending and deliberate. An orator who had studied the arts and graces before a mirror would not usually begin by drawing the back of his hand across the tip of his nose, nor would a perfect elocutionist prelude his speech by the words—"Sir, I must say." But Mr. Henley's remarks are usually so shrewd and pointed, and his style is so terse and idiomatic, that to listen to him is an intellectual pleasure as distinct and well defined, although of course differing in character and degree, as hearing a fine oration from Mr. Gladstone. No one in the House of Commons has such a command of homely mother-English as Mr. Henley. Every one will remember his "ugly rush" of voters in the debates on the Derby Reform Bill. As a specimen of his homespun language, take one of his latest speeches—delivered last month on the Sandhurst Education debate :—

The statement of the noble lord (Lord Stanley) has placed the question on a definite issue—"Will you take these young men after they have undergone one examination upon what is now pretty generally known as the system of 'cram and sham' ?" (Laughter.) Or will you not adopt the surer test of having them under your own eye for a year, when you will know whether they have anything in them or not ?" For myself, I have no particular faith in a system which brings men from north and south, and from east and from west, and then suddenly lets off the information with which they are crammed, like the charge in pop-gun. (Laughter.) The science of cram has now arrived at such a pitch of excellence that uncommon little reliance is to be placed on the results of examination. It is like bringing a race-horse to the post. A horse is brought into such condition, and trained to such a nicety, that if he runs on the expected day he is sure to be pretty well up at the finish ; but if he is not brought to the scratch at the particular moment he will, perhaps, be good for nothing. (Laughter.) The member (Mr. Ayrton) has propounded a singular proposition. "Let your 'doers,' he says, "first get their commissions, and then teach them their business." But is this principle carried out in other professions ? A man is not

allowed to practise at the bar until he is supposed to have learned something of law ; and so it is with the clergy. Would the hon. member like to have a doctor learning his business by practising upon his own person ? ("Hear, hear," and laughter.) Surely an officer should have acquired a knowledge of his profession before you give him a commission, and the best plan is to make him acquire this knowledge under your own eye. I do not think a system of open running is so likely to secure the best men as the present more qualified system. A few nights before I voted for the extension of the Sandhurst establishment, because I was unable to see why it should not be extended, when the army had been so much increased ; but I should object to a proposition to make every officer pass through the college, agreeing as I do with my right hon. friend the member for Huntingdon (General Peel) that it is better to have gentlemen entering the army in different ways, in order that the results of different systems may be ascertained. (Hear, hear.) I think it would be a great disadvantage to have all our military officers going through one groove ; but, as the Sandhurst system is only to be carried out to a limited extent, I shall vote for it. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. Henley's *spécialité* is in committee on a bill. Towards the end of the session, when younger men are off to the moors, when day sittings are superadded to protracted evening debates, and when the orders of the day usually contain some crude, ill-considered, amateur attempt at legislation, the worthy old gentleman is indefatigable in his attendance. When bills are in committee at such seasons he is lord of the ascendant, with no rival near his throne. He has every measure in his hand in succession, and puts his finger upon all kinds of suspicious and objectionable clauses. When he draws attention to a proviso and asks "How will this work ?" the astute Chairman of Quarter Sessions is in his element, and the lawyers of the House can only endorse his dictum, and declare that the right hon. gentleman has uttered good law as well as common sense. Many vexatious and absurd provisions, infringing upon the rights of the subject, have been exposed by Mr. Henley's vigilance. Sometimes, but more rarely, a great and useful measure becomes inoperative through his jealousy of new and undefined powers. A Metropolitan Drainage Bill once fell still-born because Mr. Henley succeeded in inserting in the rating clause a maximum so limited that nothing could be done, whereby much valuable time was lost.

The bee is popularly supposed to see with microscopic accuracy everything that passes within an inch of his nose, but to be defective in the faculty of distant and comprehensive vision. Mr. Henley may be supposed by many to be a statesman of this order. But a politician who renounces office and separates from old and attached colleagues rather than palter with his convictions, is sure of the esteem of the House of Commons. It has been truly remarked that in this country a reputation for sincerity is worth far more, perhaps because it is more rare, than any amount of parliamentary cleverness or brilliancy of eloquence. Mr. Henley is something more than a thoroughly honest politician. He is a legislator who shirks no trouble, evades no duty, and sets the younger M.P.s an example of industry and pains-taking which is especially valuable in an independent member. Such a man fills a useful rôle in the political world ; and our representatives of every hue in politics and religion will join us in the wish that Mr. Henley may be spared for many years to come to give his countrymen the example of his integrity and the benefit of his knowledge and experience.

## Reviews of Books.

### MOMMSEN'S HISTORY OF ROME.\*

MOMMSEN'S "History of Rome" adds one more to the list of great works which literature owes to the genius and the research of the German scholars. The name of the author is well known to those who have been in the habit of consulting the learned periodicals of Germany. A series of papers of his on the language and the ethnology of the early Italian tribes has, from time to time, appeared in one of these periodicals, which is edited by Von Savigny. The work, on its first appearance in Germany some years ago, attracted great attention, and now that English readers can judge of it for themselves in their own language they will not be slow to admit that the author's countrymen have not exaggerated its merits. A translation has just appeared, written under the sanction of the author, by Mr. Dickson, of the University of St. Andrew's, and published by the enterprise of Mr. Bentley. We cannot help expressing our surprise that the graduates of the richly-endowed universities of England should have permitted a member of a poor Scottish college to have the credit of introducing to English scholars the greatest and best history of Rome. We earnestly hope that Mr. Bentley may be adequately rewarded for his enterprise, but we fear that the type is rather small for the character of the work, and we doubt whether a book so full of immense and varied learning will be as popular as it deserves to be with a public ever straining after the flippant and shallow novelties which are dignified by the name of history.

The translator seems to have done his work very well. The English is, on the whole, clear and readable, and though at times the sentences may appear somewhat intricate and involved, any one who is acquainted with German knows how very difficult it is to turn into English the long and clumsy sentences which differ so much in their structure and framework from idiomatic English. Much has been written on the early history of Rome, and many theories have been propounded on the subject, but a complete history of the Roman Republic, worthy of the name, has been hitherto a want in literature. The work of Niebuhr formed a great landmark in the treatment of the subject. It will remain a lasting record of the vast research, the ingenuity, the sagacity, the fearless destructive energy, and the creative genius of the author. Niebuhr was, however, more successful in clearing the way for a history of Rome than in writing one of his own. He showed great skill in demolishing the edifice of early Roman history, as accepted previous to him, but in his attempt to reconstruct the demolished edifice he has failed. With marvellous ingenuity and keen intuition he has seized on fragments scattered about the pages of Livy, and has endeavoured to frame out of them a consistent and harmonious history ; but the attempt to do so is, after all, a mere speculation, which has perhaps served even to throw some discredit on his negative criticism. Arnold's history is entirely founded on Niebuhr's

\* History of Rome. By Dr. Theodor Mommsen. Translated by the Rev. W. P. Dickson, with a preface by Dr. Leonard Schmitz. Two vols. Bentley.

researches; indeed, it is nothing more than Niebuhr turned into good English. Arnold was deficient in learning for the task, and was far inferior to his master in power and grasp. His attempt to turn the history of the regal period of Rome into a species of legendary narrative is not successful, and is calculated to give erroneous misconceptions of the social life, the manners, and the governments of the time. The early annals of Rome are, to a degree, meagre and obscure; but Dr. Mommsen shows that even out of this obscurity and mist there dawns a light, and that the earliest records give good reason to infer that a civilization of no ordinary character flourished in Rome during that period. Keenly alive to the erroneous manner in which the subject has been treated by Niebuhr and his followers, our great historical sceptic and iconoclast, Sir Cornewall Lewis, goes into the opposite extreme. In his opinion the early history of Rome is and must ever remain a blank, which no human power can fill.

The work of Dr. Mommsen now comes upon the stage, and may be said to comprehend the results of all the latest researches on the subject. The author seldom mentions the name of any of those who have laboured before him in the same field, and scarcely ever enters into any controversial discussion. When he approves of the opinions of his predecessors he adopts them, without mentioning their names. The absence of controversial discussion gives a certain lightness and charm to the book, which makes it easy and pleasant to read. In constructing his work on this plan the author has acted wisely, for the introduction of controversy into the text of an historical work is calculated to render it unattractive and even repulsive to the ordinary reader. As for the scholar and the lover of history, they can well afford to dispense with its introduction when the grace and agreeable character of the work are likely to be marred; having before their eyes the opinions of the historian, they can, if real scholars, work out with ease the steps by which these conclusions have been reached.

Dr. Mommsen agrees, in the main with many of the results arrived at by Niebuhr, such as his views about the ancient population of Rome, the origin of the plebs, the relation between the patricians and plebeians, the real nature of the *ager publicus*, and other points of interest.

The translation comprehends as yet only the first half of the original work, and reaches down to the date of the battle of Pydna, 168 B.C., leaving two more volumes, comprehending the most interesting part of the history yet to come. The history is divided into books, each of them containing one well-defined period. The translation comprises three of these books,—the first book giving the history anterior to the abolition of the monarchy; the second that from the abolition of the monarchy down to the union of Italy under the Roman sceptre; and the third that from the union of Italy to the subjugation of Carthage and the Greek States. The chapters on the ethnology and the early settlements of Italy are among the most valuable parts of the first book. The author does not trouble himself or his readers with the Pelasgi, or any other mythic race. In many other countries, he remarks, fragments of a supplanted or aboriginal race are to be met with, but no trace of any such race is to be met with in Italy. Nothing has hitherto been brought to light to show that mankind existed in Italy at a time anterior to the knowledge of agriculture and of the smelting of the metals. Ordinary tradition is worthless, but the tradition of language is, in the opinion of Dr. Mommsen, though fragmentary, authentic. "Philological research," he says "teaches us to distinguish three primitive Italian stocks, the Iapygian, the Etruscan, and that which we shall call the Italian. The last is divided into two main branches, the Latin branch and that to which the dialects of the Umbri, Marsi, Volsci, and Samnites belong."

Of the Iapygian stock, which was seated in the Calabrian peninsula, little is known. Inscriptions have been found in considerable numbers, undoubtedly the remains of the dialect of the Iapygians, which prove them to have been different from the Latin and the Samnite stocks. Dr. Mommsen is inclined to think that they bore a close affinity to the Greeks—the Etruscans are to Dr. Mommsen the same puzzle which they have always been to ethnologists. "No one," he says, "has yet succeeded in connecting them with any other known race. All sorts of dialects have been examined with a view to discover their affinity with the Etruscans, but all, without exception, in vain."

The Italian race inhabited the centre of the peninsula, and consisted of two main stocks, the Latin and the Umbrian, the latter comprehending the Marsi and the Samnites. The Latin dialect Dr. Mommsen considers to have had a relation to the Umbro-Sannite, somewhat similar to that between the Ionic and the Doric, and the difference between the Oscan and the Umbrian may, in his opinion, be compared with the difference between the Dorism of Sicily and the Dorism of Sparta.

The migration of the Umbrian stocks seems to have been begun at a later period than that of the Latins. It is not improbable that they may, in very ancient times, have occupied the whole of North Italy to the part where they were founded by the Illyrians in the East and the Ligurians in the West. He thinks it likely that they may have preceded the Etruscans, and that it was the presence of the Etruscans that induced them to proceed to the South. In their advance they occupied the hill country, which skirted the plain. The Samnites finally occupied the Abruzzi and the hill country to the South. They attained the highest political development among the Umbro-Sannite stock.

Our limited space precludes us from giving any idea of the great mass of philological knowledge which Dr. Mommsen brings forward in support of these views. This branch of knowledge he considers to be yet in its infancy, and thinks that in course of time, as it progresses, much additional light may be thrown on the history of the Italian tribes.

The close relationship between the Greek and the Latin races is well known to all ethnologists. Dr. Mommsen adopts the accepted view to its fullest extent. In a passage of great eloquence, he shows that, notwithstanding the similarity of the two races in everything resting on a material foundation, a marked divergence arose between them in other matters:—

"In the spiritual domain, the family, and the state religion, and art, received in Italy and in Greece respectively a development so peculiar and so thoroughly national that the common basis on which, in these respects also, the two peoples rested has been so overgrown as to be almost concealed from our view. That Hellenic character which sacrificed the whole to its individual elements, the nation to the single state, and the single state to the citizen; whose ideal of life was the beautiful and the good, and only too often the pleasure of idleness; whose

political development consisted in intensifying the original individualism of the several cantons, and subsequently led to the internal dissolution of the state; whose view of religion first invested its gods with human attributes, and then denied their existence; which gave full play to the limbs in the sports of naked youth, and gave free scope to thought in all its grandeur and in all its awfulness; and that Roman character which solemnly bound the son to reverence the father, the citizen to reverence the ruler, and all to reverence the gods; which required nothing and honoured nothing but the useful art, and compelled every citizen to fill up every moment of his brief life with unceasing work; which made it a duty, even in the boy, modestly to cover the body; which deemed everybody a bad citizen who wished to be different from his fellows; which viewed the state as all in all, and a desire for the state's extension as the only aspiration not liable to censure. Who can in thought trace back these sharply marked contrasts to that original unity which embraced them both, prepared the way for their development, and at length produced them?"

Again, he says:—

"The points in which the Hellenes excel the Italians are more universally intelligible, and reflect a more brilliant lustre; but the deep feeling in each individual that he was only a part of the community, a rare devotedness and power of self-sacrifice for the common weal, an earnest faith in its own gods, formed the rich treasure of the Italian nation. The Italian alone, among all the civilized nations of antiquity, worked out a national unity in connection with a constitution based on self-government—a national unity which at last placed in his hands not only even the whole known world."

The chapter on the early Roman law is of equal, if not greater value, than those on the ethnology. Our author is familiar with the profound investigations of Von Savigny, Klenze, Rudorff, and other great German jurists. The date of the earliest record of the common law of Rome is about fifty years after the abolition of the monarchy. Dr. Mommsen argues, correctly in our opinion, that this system of law must, in the main, have been in existence during the regal period. He then, with great originality, and with true historic genius, draws the reasonable influence that a very fair outline of the institutions and the state of society of that period can be inferred from these early records.

"Surveying them on the whole," he says "we recognize the law of a far-advanced agricultural and mercantile city, marked alike by its liberality and its consistency. With a few exceptions, the Roman law, as we know it, uniformly, and on principle, rejects the conventional language of symbols, and requires in all cases neither more nor less than the full and free expression of will. The delivery of an article, the summons to bear witness, the conclusion of marriage, were complete as soon as the parties had in an intelligible manner declared their purpose. It was usual to observe certain primitive practices; but these practices were already, under the oldest national law of the Romans, customs legally worthless. Every sort of symbolism was, in short, expelled from the law. There is no mutual alliance, offensive or defensive, for the vindication of law within the state, to supplement its imperfect power of furnishing redress; nor is there any serious trace of vengeance for bloodshed, or of family property being tied up so as to restrict the individual power of disposal. The clan and the family were not annihilated in the Roman community; but the theoretical as well as the practical omnipotence of the state in its own sphere was no more limited by them than by the liberty which the state granted and guaranteed to the burgess. The ultimate foundation of law was in all cases the state; liberty was simply another expression for the right of citizenship in its widest sense; all property was based on express or tacit transference from the community to the individual; a contract was valid only so far as the community by its representatives attested it, a testament only so far as the community confirmed it. The provinces of public and private law were definitely and clearly discriminated, the former having reference to crimes against the state, which immediately called for the interference of the judicatures of the state, and always involved capital punishment; the latter having reference to offences against a fellow-burgess or a guest, which were mainly disposed of in the way of compromise, by expiation or satisfaction made to the party injured, and were never punished with the forfeit of life, but at the most with the loss of liberty. The greatest liberality in the permission of commerce and the most rigorous procedure in execution went hand in hand, just as in commercial states at the present day the universal right to draw bills of exchange appears in conjunction with a strict procedure in regard to them. The burgess and the client stood, in their dealings, on a footing of entire equality; state treaties conceded a comprehensive equality of rights also to the guest; women were placed completely on a level, in point of legal capacity, with men, although restricted in administering their property; the boy had scarcely grown up when he received at once the most comprehensive powers in the disposal of his property. A feature eminently characteristic was the system of credit. There did not exist any credit on landed security, but, instead of a debt on mortgage, the delivery of the property from the debtor to the creditor took place at once. On the other hand, personal credit was guaranteed in the most summary and extravagant fashion; for the law entitled the creditor to treat his insolvent debtor like a thief. The design of the law was to establish an independent agriculture free of debt, and a mercantile credit, and to suppress with stringent energy all merely nominal ownership and all breaches of fidelity. The poetical form and the general symbolism which so pleasingly prevail in the Germanic legal ordinances were foreign to the Roman: in his law all was clear and precise, no symbol was employed, no institution was superfluous. It was not cruel, except in the case of insolvent debtors; everything necessary was performed without tedious ceremony, even the punishment of death: that a free man could not be tortured was a primitive maxim of Roman law. The greatness of Rome was based on the fact that the Roman people ordained for itself, and endured, a system of law in which the eternal principles of liberty and of subordination, of property and of right, of redress, reigned, and still at the present day reign, unadulterated and undivided."

We leave this brilliant summary of the state of the Roman law 450 B.C. to the attention of our great legal reformer and good scholar, Lord Westbury. He may perhaps allow that the English law, even in our own year of grace, may, notwithstanding all the recent improvements, borrow something with advantage from those very primitive legislators, the kings and the pre-constitutional burgesses of Rome, who lived and governed one thousand years before the days of Justinian.

(To be continued.)

#### THE CHANNINGS.\*

It is a great pity to see a writer, who has once attained to pre-eminence, sink below mediocrity. The authoress of "East Lynne" had, however,

\* The Channings. By Mrs. Henry Wood, Author of "East Lynne" and "Dundreary House." Bentley. 1862.

ever, no doubt, satisfactory reasons for becoming the authoress of "The Channings," and if self-respect and consideration for the public did not prevent Mrs. Wood from venturing too carelessly on a second publication, the victims of her temerity have no other resource than to proclaim their disappointment, and to console with their fellow-sufferers upon the uncertainties of human effort and the caprices of literary ability. The present volume possesses, in fact, but few of the recommendations which caused a run upon the lending libraries for "East Lynne," and raised the authoress, at a single step, to a more than respectable place among modern story-tellers. In that case characters and incidents alike had, at any rate, the great charm of novelty. It was a bold stroke to make an attorney the hero of a romance, and to dignify him with every moral and physical charm that could inspire respect or affection; it was still bolder to make a guilty wife return in disguise to her home, and wear out a penitential existence in all the agonies which the sight of her lost treasure was likely to occasion. The whole thing was unnatural and improbable enough, but it was just near enough to nature and to probability to enable the reader to bring it before his mind, and to make him inquisitive as to how the author would succeed in disposing of the various embarrassing complications which so unusual a domestic arrangement could not fail to bring about. The heroine was pretty, interesting, and just sinful enough to arouse our compassion without shocking our susceptibilities. The hero, on the other hand, was everything that a hero should be, while his unusual circumstances gave a piquancy to virtues which might otherwise have seemed uninterestingly complete. In "The Channings" we look in vain for any such fortunate combinations. The story, indeed, except in its unnecessary prolixity, is not badly told, but it is a sad old story. There are some paths in the realm of Fiction so well trodden and so perfectly familiar that, however graceful and agreeable our guide, the journey along them is certain to prove tedious.

It is by one of the least amusing of these that the reader of "The Channings" is constrained to travel. The whole machinery of the story is made to revolve round an act of fraud, of which everybody suspects everybody else, and of which the real perpetrator comes forward to announce himself only at the close of the third volume. Three young men are in an attorney's office together, and a bank-note disappears in such a manner as to leave no doubt that one of the three is the culprit. Two of them are brothers—one careless, easy-going, and extravagant, the other high-souled, conscientious, and sensitive; the third is a mad-cap, talkative Irishman, the eldest son of a widowed peeress, who proclaims her rank by driving about in a faded barouche, and her country by being late for breakfast, keeping her household in a whirl of disorder, and by exclaiming "Bad luck to ye!" on occasions where an English aristocrat would have been contented with a less vehement expression. Ronald Yorke, her son, disarms suspicion by his daring manner and good-natured frankness, and the blame of the theft falls upon the two brothers. Most people think Arthur Channing, the high-souled enthusiast, to be the culprit; Arthur himself believes his brother Hamish to be the thief, and refuses to clear himself at the expense of his brother's disgrace. All the natural inconveniences of an unexplained mystery at once ensue. Arthur is dismissed from his office, slighted by his father, and cut by his friends; Arthur's sister is estranged from her lover; Arthur's younger brother is insulted by his school-fellows, and deprived of his "exhibition." To crown the list of family catastrophes, a still younger brother is frightened by a sham ghost dressed up by his school-fellows, rushes wildly away in the darkness, and disappears with a scream into a neighbouring river. When we add to this that the father of the family becomes the victim of chronic rheumatism, and is driven in despair to try the efficacy of some German waters; and that the wicked perversity of the Lord Chancellor leads to the reversal of a decree in the Court of Chancery, which the laws of morality and the decisions of the inferior courts had alike given in favour of the Channing interest, it becomes easy to conceive the agonizing climax at which the authoress, in a constantly ascending scale of catastrophes, in course of time arrives. At this point happily the tide turns, some faint rays of hope break in upon the dreary scene, and Fortune, having done her worst, begins to relent. The attorney, whose missing note was the first cause of trouble, comes in spite of the laws of evidence and his own innate suspiciousness, to believe in the high-souled brother's innocence. Arthur, however, still conscious of his brother's guilt, blushes and stammers when the subject is mentioned, deprecates all further inquiry, and refuses any satisfactory elucidation. Hamish aggravates the suspicions of his relations by a studied hilarity, by sudden supplies of money, and by sitting up in the most unaccountable manner when the rest of the family have retired to rest. He has won the affections of a neighbouring young lady, and her papa has promised to procure him a good appointment, and to welcome him as a son-in-law. Now, however, the facts in the case look so dark, that the stern parent bids his child recall her misplaced devotion, and refuses to help a doubtful man to a responsible place. At last the long-wished-for *dénouement* arrives, and virtue personified in Arthur receives its due reward. The reckless Irishman finding his creditors troublesome, and the tedium of the attorney's office too great for longer endurance, runs away to Port Natal, and writes home to acknowledge the theft, and to exonerate Arthur from all participation; the drowned brother turns up, emaciated and shorn, but as sound as ever, having been rescued by a passing bargeman, and having devoted several weeks of canal navigation to passing safely through a brain fever; the rheumatic father returns from Germany in high spirits and with a resuscitated frame; Hamish recovers his young lady, and Hamish's sister her young gentleman; and the mysterious vigils of the former are explained by a surreptitious devotion to classical literature. Finally, the magnanimous Arthur returns in triumph to his desk in the attorney's office, and receives his "articles" gratis, as the compensation of such resolute heroism and so much unmerited obloquy. This story, so the advertisements inform us, appeared originally in the *Quiver*, and many of its peculiarities are, no doubt, owing to a polite consideration for the tastes of the readers of that periodical. In some instances it appears that the editor considered the work, even as it is, to fall short of the necessities of the case, and supplemented it with little annotations of his own, which Mrs. Wood has since expunged. Questions of taste are proverbial of precise regulation; but we cannot but feel that the readers of the *Quiver*, no doubt a very estimable class of persons, have adopted a some-

what imperfect standard of intellectual excellence, and have much to answer for, if the wide interval between "East Lynne" and "The Channings" results not from the authoress's incapacity, but from her too ready deference to their vitiated tastes. Mrs. Wood can paint, as she has shown us, with a tolerably delicate brush, but the colours here are daubed in with a coarse profusion, worthy rather of the theatrical scene-painter than of a genuine artist. The lines are hard, the lights and shades violently contrasting, the troubles are flooded in upon us as if in the last scene of a Greek tragedy, and the happiness, when it does come, is that kind of transcendental felicity which a silly school-girl conceives to be Paradise, but which an educated intellect rejects as absurd and impossible. The various characters of the story are depicted with the same negligent roughness; the good people are absolute saints, the disagreeable people mere monsters of rudeness, and the foolish people so very far gone in idiocy as to prevent their folly being in the least humorous or entertaining. There is an Irish earl, for instance, who is introduced to support a comic part, and whose characteristics are so preposterously exaggerated that one feels as one reads that no such creature ever did or could exist, either in Ireland or anywhere else. Irish humour and sentiment are excellent materials for a novelist to work upon, but the study must be made from life. A number of delicate touches, carefully brought on, must produce the whole effect, and, above all, the stale conventional Irishman who lives on a bankrupt estate, romances about the ancestral splendours of an imaginary castle, and says "wid ye" when he means "with you," must be sedulously avoided. Mrs. Wood, however, is quite content with this commonplace ideal, and her Hibernian peer is accordingly nothing but a dull caricature of what other people have considered that Irishmen are traditionally bound to be. In the same way the Irish peeress talks and behaves like a disorderly housemaid in her Sunday clothes; and an old school servant, who is described as the butt of the boys and the object of various practical facetiae, is a great deal too far removed from the limits of ordinary humanity to allow us to feel even surprise at his disagreeable eccentricities. The same criticism might be passed on the various descriptions of schoolboys, which form an important feature of the "Channings." Schoolboy life, as a wearisomely copious supply of examples assure us, admits of quite sufficient incident, play of feeling, and variety of character, to arouse the attention of modern novel readers. Everybody was interested in Tom Brown's conscientious endeavours to reconcile juvenile sturdiness and moral heroism; and boat-races, prize-fights, and bed-room festivities, can be made, by a skilful and experienced artist, the substratum for a really exciting narrative; but Mrs. Wood's schoolboys are of quite another breed from the natural Rugby lads, whose proceedings were worked, in "Tom Brown," into so graphic a picture. It is not enough to collect a few pieces of slang, and conventional expressions of schoolboy morality, and to put them into the mouths of little prigs, such as happily never existed except in a benevolent female imagination. Boys, as those who have to deal with them are well aware, have little that is consistent or dependable about them, and their tastes, habits, and language must always remain a mystery to all but the experienced beholder. Ladies' descriptions of boys and young men are invariably the saddest failures of which even lady novelists are guilty; and we can scarcely except Mrs. Wood's performance from the general rule. One other complaint we feel constrained to make. The whole story is permeated by a languid stream of theological sentiment, which the readers of the *Quiver* may possibly appreciate, but which to the general reader recalls the association of an unusually tame curate and dull afternoon discourse. Religious topics have their proper occasions, but the peruser of a three-volumed novel wants to be amused and not edified, and naturally feels irritated at having the catastrophe of the tale delayed for homilies on moral vigour, or ejaculatory commendations of the principal Christian graces. Mrs. Wood will, we trust, on some future occasion, retrieve the honourable position which her present performance has endangered. She can express herself with propriety and force; she can conceive new and attractive characters, and she professes a real talent for throwing out various threads of narrative, and collecting them again when the necessities of the story call for them; but she must confine herself to regions with which it is possible for a woman to be familiar; she must not set up for a moralist or philosopher, and she must not allow the *Quiver* or any other enthusiastic adviser to tempt her into forgetting the cardinal rules of an art in which she has already shown herself capable of no mean success.

#### DR. DÖLLINGER ON THE PAPAL CRISIS.\*

A TWELVEMONTH ago two lectures delivered by a Munich professor of divinity scandalized the Ultramontane faction in Germany. He had ventured to contemplate without the proper affectation of horror a possible termination of the Pope's worldly reign in the city and provinces of Rome. For this he was called to account at a conference of his brethren some time later in the year. He was spared, however, the necessity of recanting, since he could plead that what he said had been imperfectly reported, and its purport exaggerated by rumour. Those lectures are published in an appendix to the volume which Mr. MacCabe here presents to English readers. They do not, indeed, go so far as to advocate a relinquishment of the Pope's Italian principality. But their object is clearly to extenuate the effect of its deprivation on the prospects and resources of the Church. The author still declared that under the existing circumstances of Europe that territorial dominion was requisite to secure the Pope in the independent exercise of his spiritual rule. But he denied that the possession of what are called the States of the Church was essential to the integrity of her existence or to the performance of her functions in the world. He even conceived that a new political condition of the world might render it not only a superfluity, but a burthensome hinderance to her progress. There was, he reminded her fussy episcopal champions, no divine promise that the successor of St. Peter should always be the monarch of a temporal kingdom. It might already in the councils of Providence be resolved that the Papal See should part with the sovereignty of Rome. And its loss might even be a relief or an advantage to the Church and to her Pontifical head, if Europe and Italy were to become the theatre of new revolutions. The Pope might then best consult his safety, freedom, and dignity by getting up into some Ararat, or floating serenely athwart the deluge in

\* The Church and the Churches; or, the Papacy and the Temporal Power. An Historical and Political Review. By Dr. Döllinger. Translated by W. B. MacCabe. Hurst & Blackett.

his figurative ark, if a fresh plague of universal democracy were about to inundate the earth. In such an event the Holy Father would be placed in a far better position were he to cease being responsible for the weakest and most unpopular government in Europe. It must be confessed that, in fact, ever since 1831 that Government had been nothing but a continual source of anxiety and trouble. It was lamentable for the Holy See to be always dependent on foreign bayonets to uphold its temporal sway in spite of the discontent and aversion of its Italian subjects. It could not be the will of Divine Providence that this unnatural state of things should continue for an indefinite time; and besides that, public opinion at the present day ran in favour of the secularization of governments. Be it remembered, after all, that the Church, existing by and for herself, had done very well for seven early centuries without reigning over those Italian states. She might again do as well as ever, though obliged once more to dispense with them, some other guarantees being provided for the inviolability of her supreme overseer. In any case, Dr. Döllinger would conjure his fellow-believers, as they valued the credit of their Church, not to cling too closely to that about her which was transitory and accidental. The Pope's temporal dominion was of this nature, and an interruption of it appeared to the author, in April, and not less in October last, a very probable event. But to the best of his political judgment, the loss of that dominion seemed likely to be a temporary loss, to be followed by its restoration in an improved form. However, they would see what they should see. Possibilities of one kind and another might bring good out of evil, at the end of this contest for the possession of Rome.

Such were the lectures which made such a noise at Munich last year. It must not be supposed that they were inspired by a liberal sympathy with the Italian nation, or by any of those ideas of political equity to which its claim of independence has lately appealed. The rise of a free and united Italy is viewed by Dr. Döllinger with undisguised abhorrence and contempt. He spends his most virulent invective upon the promoters of what he calls the Piedmontese annexations, and upon that upstart convention of demagogues, as he imagines it, the Chamber of Deputies at Turin. He is probably ignorant of the real composition of that Chamber, which is not at all like the constituent assemblies that arose in France and Germany on certain revolutionary occasions, but rather like an English House of Commons. He is not aware that the men of substance and good social position in that Chamber outnumber "those land-plagues, the lawyers and literary men, who, with their trumpery, pompous, hollow rhetoric, are permitted to float on the surface of society." But it is of very little importance to the Italians what opinion Dr. Döllinger may entertain of their nation, their parliament, their statesmen, or their king. It is, however, of some consequence to remark that it is political, not theological, bigotry which evokes before his fancy, in discussing Italian matters, such wild phantoms as "the Mazzinian wolf," and "the Piedmontese beast of prey." The grounds on which he detests New Italy are, that her independence has been created by revolutionary agencies, and, to a certain extent, by French aid. He is a great stickler for the Legitimist theory of sovereign rights, and for that prescriptive or so-called "historical" system of public law which the dull German professors are wont to expound as the *raison d'être* of the petty German princes. It is by his prejudices as a Bavarian Conservative, and not by his opinion of the consecrated and inalienable character of the Pope's temporalities, that he is stirred up to anger at beholding a national kingdom with popular institutions, rising up and demanding Rome for its capital. It is worth while to take note of the point of view from which Dr. Döllinger beholds this question. He is described by his translator, in a biographical preface, as the most distinguished of living German scholars and writers. That can only be in his special department and among the members of his own communion. He has produced voluminous works of ecclesiastical history and dogmatic theology, mentioned by Mr. MacCabe. With this reputation for orthodox lore, his negative testimony should help to reassure those Catholic religionists who have been persuaded of late that to overthrow an odious temporal government of prelates is to commit an assault upon the faith. His authority as a theologian may well be employed to rescue the consciences which have been perilously distressed by the alarmist clamours vented in frequent pastorals and allocutions. His fame as a writer, according to Mr. MacCabe, is merited by "ingenious combination, skill as a logician, and a lofty tone in handling the interests of his Church." Some, at least, of those qualities should appear in the work before us. Its aim does him credit as a churchman, so far as he dares follow the light he has gained. He has sought, as a prudent tactician, to counteract that disadvantageous impression, with regard to the stability and prosperity of the Roman Catholic system, which was likely to arise from the example of reckless zealots shrieking out that the Church was in danger when the Pope was nigh shaken off his temporal throne. His object, when he came forward last April, as he tells us himself, was to ward off this damaging misconception of the degree in which Catholic religious interests might be affected by the present crisis of the Roman question. The sum, however, of all that he thinks fit to say upon that question is, that the Church will not be ruined by its resulting in a decision adverse to the Papal Court. We should much have preferred a frank avowal of his conviction, that the removal of the Pope's temporal sovereignty will but take a snare and a stumbling-block out of the Church's path. This view, he is well aware, has been boldly advocated by other theologians, such as Father Passaglia, whose renown for learning and orthodoxy is quite equal to his own. It is no disparagement to compare the German with that Italian churchman, whose services to the dogmatic authority of the Holy See, in the controversy of the Immaculate Conception, give him a claim, no less than Dr. Döllinger's, to the attention of Catholics, where the interests of their religion are concerned.

Meantime we cannot be sure of Dr. Döllinger's real sentiments on this question of the expediency of maintaining the elective monarchy vested in the College of Roman Cardinals. We are obliged to suspect that, if he were not a Munich professor, if he could speak out unreservedly, and with reference only to the welfare of his Church, he would be ready to join Passaglia in declaring against the Pope's temporal dominion. For throughout this volume he does not attempt to furnish any real argument in its support. That which is the vital issue is just alluded to here and there in a parenthesis, as if it were "obvious to everybody that the temporal power is required by the Church, and everything had been said about it that can be said." Dr. Döllinger is commended by his translator as a skilful logician. It is strange, then, that

he should not have been able to supply at least an ostensible argument in support of that which is left a mere assumption, viz., that it is necessary for the free exercise of the Pope's ecclesiastical functions that he should also exercise temporal power. It can scarcely be supposed that the author would have neglected to prove this most essential proposition, if he had felt it was a sound one. It is very bad logic to say that the Pope must not become a subject, or belong to any particular kingdom, because the Church over which he presides is a world-church; the great Catholic community, including various nations—German, Italian, French and Spanish, Polish and Irish, with no preference of one over the others. Dr. Döllinger speaks of the territorial sovereignty as "means adapted to the present state of Europe," but which may be superseded by other means, of securing the independence of the Popes. But he knows that it has practically entailed upon them the very reverse of independence. In the historical sketch he gives us of the adventures which their temporal reign has experienced, since it was established on the fall of the Imperial Exarchate, he shows in how many instances it has made them dependent on foreign potentates. He admits that the Pope and the whole *Curia* are at this time dependent on the Emperor Napoleon. He remarks that "the mere threat to withdraw the French garrison, and leave the Pope and remnant of his states to their fate, must now force them to yield to the threatener everything it would not be a sin to concede." Dr. Döllinger may well, therefore, protest that "the existing relations between France and Rome are such as cannot be patiently endured by the Catholic world." He acknowledges, in the next page, that it is to protect the Pope against his own subjects that the French are in Rome; and he cannot resist the conclusion that "under these circumstances the possession of a Church State produces results the very opposite to those by which alone it could be justified." For instead of assuring freedom and independent action to the highest guide of the Church, "it will sink continually in public opinion, as an institution which cannot dispense with the presence of foreign soldiers to prop it up." This is exactly what Lord Palmerston said of it the other night. And this is Dr. Döllinger's own view of the disadvantage which actually results to the Papacy from that incumbrance of the temporal power, which he likens to "a clog or leaden weight tied to the feet of the successor of the apostles." Yet he lacks the courage and consistency which would enable him, like Passaglia, to declare that the time has come when, for the sake of the Church, the temporal power ought to be relinquished. He affects indeed to entertain the notion that by certain administrative reforms, and a large employment of lay officials, the paternal absolutism of the Pope (for constitutional government is not to be thought of) can ever again become tolerable to an Italian people. His account, however, of what has taken place at Rome since the accession of Pius IX. is so grossly inaccurate, that not the slightest value can be attached to his judgment of Italian politics.

We do not care to analyze that portion of the contents of Dr. Döllinger's book which has no direct bearing on the Roman political question. His title-page, however, displays that knack of "ingenious combination" for which he is lauded by Mr. MacCabe. It is so contrived as to exhibit two groups of essentially different subjects, between which no connecting argument is supplied, but which are coupled by an *or*, as if naturally associated together. By "the Church and the Churches," Dr. Döllinger seems to mean a comparison between the unity of the Roman Catholic system and the diversity of heretical religions. After a brief discourse on the general principle of Catholicity, and the primacy of the bishops of Rome, he gives us what he calls "a panoramic survey" of the other ecclesiastical communions of Christendom. It is certainly amusing to see how sharply all their peculiar failings, and every symptom of perplexity or declension among them are detected, and pitilessly exposed by this hostile censor. He begins with the patriarchate of Constantinople, the Hellenic, and the Russian communions. He then examines the position of the English establishment, and of the various Dissenting bodies in this country, as well as of the Scottish Kirks. He delights in the caricatures we have drawn of ourselves. He says that the Established Church of England is characteristically an insular Church—the product and expression not only of a particular nationality, but of the mental habits of our aristocratic, fashionable, and cultivated classes. "It is the religion of deportment, of gentility, of clerical reserve; it is expected to be, above all things, not intrusive or troublesome, not presuming or importunate." He does, however, find, when passing in review the Evangelical, the Anglican, Tractarian, and Broad Church parties, that this epigrammatic description will not wholly fit the actual varieties of character and demeanour among the English clergy. We are rather inclined to demur to his citing Lord John Manners as an authority on the social condition of our people. Dr. Döllinger has very readily made up his mind that it is the Protestant Reformation which has crushed down and brutalized the working classes of this country. Along with the legal institution of pauperism, he discovers that the vice of drunkenness, from which our sober Catholic ancestors were exempt, came in with the morose and sullen Protestant religion; and, indeed, "that the poverty and insignificance of English literature in the time of Elizabeth" must be ascribed to the same pernicious change. In North Britain "the debasing influence of Calvinism" is, to the eyes of a divinity professor at Munich, patent from facts of daily occurrence. As he is a reader of the English newspapers, he quotes the *Saturday Review* for an impartial account of Mr. Spurgeon, and the *Union* as a witness to "the semi-infidelity of the Broad Church school." In this way Dr. Döllinger would convict each section of the non-Catholic world of grave abuses, corruptions, and derelictions, on the testimony of its opponents or rivals. He criticises with equal severity the multitude of religions in America, the Reformed Church of Holland, the Protestant congregations in France, the Lutheranism of Germany, Sweden, and Denmark, and the Protestant confessions of Switzerland. We are not concerned here to follow him into these matters. His views, extending over so wide a range of ecclesiastical geography, are necessarily superficial, but this part of the volume is at least instructive. It has not, indeed, much bearing on the question of the Pope's temporal power; unless we are to infer that the Roman Catholic Church, now that all her competitors show so many signs of decay, is able, by her proper spiritual efficacy, to succeed and flourish without need of keeping her pontifical disreputable position of a petty Italian tyrant. If this be Dr. Döllinger's real conclusion, let him speak out as Father Passaglia has done. Meanwhile, there is one remark to be made on his attempt to glorify the Papacy by comparing "the Church" with those heretical communities which he styles, perhaps ironically, "the churches," and by exulting over their actual condition.

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He has refrained, with a dutiful discretion, from commenting on the actual condition of his own Church among the several nations of the Continent. But if Protestants were disposed to retort upon him for the malicious inquisitiveness with which he pries into their domestic affairs, they might quote the testimony of Father Passaglia, who has, with a no less dutiful candour, revealed the spread of disaffection among the Catholic flock in Italy. By the infatuation of Pius IX., and of a majority of the Italian prelates and bishops, in fiercely opposing and denouncing the national cause, the laity there have been estranged, perhaps beyond recall, from the religious associations of past ages. The population of Italy has been excommunicated *en masse*. There is but one way for "the Church" to recover a hold on the affections of the Italian nation. It is by renouncing the temporal sovereignty of Rome. By persistently clinging to the enormity of a papal principedom, the Catholic hierarchy is dragged and defiled through the dirty ways of political intrigue. The Catholic laity are disgusted, and the Papal authority, even in spiritual matters, incurs the natural aversion, or, we might say, the just resentment of the people. This is what the temporal power does for the Church.

#### A RUSSIAN AUTOBIOGRAPHY.\*

We know so little of the domestic life of Russia, and are so thoroughly ignorant of the feelings which stir the hearts of its people, and the ideas which occupy their minds, that we ought to prize such an opportunity as Count Tolstoi has given us of entering a Russian family circle, and of scrutinizing the inner life of one of its members. Under any circumstances his book would have been interesting as a faithful record of the early joys and sorrows of an enthusiastic and eminently impressionable mind, but it becomes far more valuable when it is considered as a stand-point from which we can gaze upon an alien world of strange beings whose deeds we have little means of appreciating, and whose words are muffled by the veil of an unknown tongue. Or we may look on it as a loophole through which we see right into the interior of the Slavonic ant-hill, and can watch the busy workings of its inhabitants, the lordly airs of the soldier-ants, and the ceaseless drudgery of the slaves.

The Russian gentleman is generally an educational triumph. From his earliest infancy he breathes a tutorial atmosphere, and is wrapped in didactic swaddling-clothes. He learns French, German, and probably English, before he knows anything of his vernacular, beyond what he acquires colloquially, and becomes at least trilingual as easily as other boys grow freckled. His life expands among the arts and sciences, and when his moustache begins to sprout, it shades the lip of a musician, a draughtsman, and a philosopher. Moreover, he becomes a man of polished manners, skilled in lighting the coldness of his calculating glance with the glitter of a courtly smile. He is little troubled by bashfulness or timidity, and if he bows to a lady or breaks her heart, he does it with an outward grace and an inward satisfaction, that leave nothing to be desired. Too often he is utterly destitute of religious feeling, and looks down with supreme contempt upon the belief of his countrymen, and the ecclesiastics of his Church. In morals he is often a cynic, having very little faith in human nature, and believing that every one is as eager to promote his own interests or to gratify his own passions as he is himself. He is ambitious, and ready to trample down those who stand in his way. He has a passion for intrigue, and is deterred by few scruples from its prosecution. He has a mania for gambling, and will risk all he holds dear on the turn of a card or the throw of a die. For his serfs he has a kindly contempt, treating them well enough in general, but utterly ignoring the idea that they are beings of the same race as himself, linked by mutual interests, and bound together by human ties. Now and then he may descend to drop into their lower sphere, as the immortals would in olden days, and clasp one of the inferior race to what he would be anatomically correct in calling his heart, but his ordinary feelings towards the featherless bipeds on his farm are closely akin to those with which a Southern planter surveys his dusky chattels.

Such is the character of an unfavourable specimen of the Russian nobility, and unfortunately there are too many men of this stamp among the class to which the Emperor is at present preaching his sermon of forbearance and self-sacrifice.

But if, as a general rule, the class is marked by selfish vices, it also affords numerous and brilliant illustrations of the opposite virtues. There are many noble households in Russia which are models of kindly homes, rich in all domestic affections, and circled with an atmosphere of love. And this is the reason why we receive such contradictory accounts from travellers. One of them sees only the dark side of the Russian character, and his record is a calendar of crimes, representing the whole Slavonic race as a brood of barbarians trembling beneath the inevitable knout. Another is received into a family which would do honour to any country, and his pencil, like that of Lady Charlotte Pepys, depicts a new Arcadia before our wondering eyes.

Count Tolstoi belongs to the honourable class of Russian gentlemen who have broken through the limited circle of ideas in which their fellows revolve, and have heard something of the music of the spheres sounding amid the deafening noises of every-day life. Of a thoroughly poetic nature, he has nursed instead of stifling the aspirations after a higher and nobler existence than can be afforded by the camp, the court, or the saloon. Far from ignoring or despising the human beings of whose destinies he was born the master, he has entered into their pleasures and sorrows, and has devoted himself to the task of ameliorating their condition. Through the Crimean war he served with the army at Sevastopol, and during the course of the siege he published in one of the leading Russian magazines—the *Sovremennik*—a series of very interesting sketches of soldier life, which have since been collected under the title of "Voenniye Razskazi" (Military Sketches). At the close of the campaign, he retired to his estates, and there gave himself up to the development of his favourite theories—founding schools for the benefit of his tenants and personally aiding in the task of instruction. Such men cannot be too highly valued. They perform the very greatest of services to their country while they are alive, and when they die their good deeds live after them. We heartily wish him success in the arduous labour which he has undertaken—in the too often thankless career on which he has entered.

The work of which the present volume is a translation, was published some years ago in Russia, under the title of "Dyestvo i Otrechestvo," and enjoys a great popularity there. It is, as the translator says in her preface, "a mere household story; but the author knows how to surround his individual pictures with a charm which innate poetic feeling alone can spread over the daily occurrences of life." He describes the occupations and diversions of his early years, the friends and relations with whom he lived, and the feelings with which he regarded them, in unaffected though highly poetic language. The portraits which he draws form a very interesting series, from the mother, whose memory he so tenderly prizes, to the gruff old tutor and the household servants. The only disagreeable chapter in the book is that in which he speaks of his father, a man whose whole nature was totally at variance with his own. The sketch of the old Count is admirable in itself, but it should not have been executed by the hand of his son:—

"He was a man of the last century, and had the chivalrous character, the self-reliance, and gallantry common to the youth of that time. . . . He always wore ample and light garments, beautiful shirts, a large collar, and ruffles turned over; everything became his stately figure and his quiet self-confident expression. He was full of feeling, even to sentimentality. Often, when he read aloud, on coming to a pathetic passage, his voice began to falter, the tears rushed to his eyes, and he laid the book aside. He was fond of music, and accompanying himself on the piano, sang romances, gipsy songs, and some themes from operas. . . . His nature was one of those which requires a public in order to do anything good, and that only which the public called good was acknowledged by him as such. God knows whether he had any moral convictions. His life was so full of attractions of all kinds that he had never had time to form any, and he was always so fortunate that he did not feel the want of them."

But the mother was a truly loveable woman, adored by her children, her friends, and her servants—noble and kind and good:—

"When mamma smiled, how beautiful her face was! It made her infinitely more handsome, and everything around seemed to look cheerful. If in the heavy moments of life I could but behold that smile, I should never know what grief is. . . . Sometimes I sit and listen. How should I not listen? Mamma is speaking to somebody, and the sound of her voice is so melodious and so kind! How much these sounds communicate to my heart! My eyes veiled by drowsiness, I sadly looked at her; suddenly she becomes smaller and smaller, her face seems not more than a point, but still it is clearly visible to me. I see how she looks at me and smiles."

Just before her death she wrote a most touching letter to her husband, from which we extract the following beautiful passage:—

"I alone know that I shall not leave my bed again. Do not delay a minute to come with the children. Perhaps I may be allowed yet to embrace and bless them; this is my last wish. . . . Let us try to bear this misfortune with firmness, and hope in the mercy of God. Let us submit to His will. . . . I shall no more be with you, but I firmly believe that my love will never forsake you; and this thought is so great a comfort to me that I tranquilly and without fear expect approaching death. I am calm, and God knows that I ever looked, and do look upon death as upon the passage to a better life. . . . I can no longer write, from tears. It may be that I shall see you no more. I thank you, my invaluable friend, for all the happiness with which you have surrounded me in this life; I shall soon myself pray God to reward you. Farewell, dearest! Remember that if I am no longer here, my love will nowhere and never abandon you! Farewell, Woloda; farewell, my angel! Farewell, my Benjamin, my Nicolina! Is it possible they will ever forget me?"

The children were taken to their mother's death-bed, but she did not recognize them.

"I felt the deepest grief at this moment, but nevertheless I observed every little incident. It was almost dark in the room, very hot, and there was a mixed scent of mint, eau-de-Cologne, carnomile, and Hoffman's drops. This last so strongly impressed me, that if I now hear of it, or merely think of it, my imagination instantly carries me back to the dark close room, and I witness again the minutest details of these dreadful moments. . . . We were led away. When, later, I asked Natalia Sawishna about mamma's last moments, she told me the following:—'After you were led away, . . . my darling cast off and dragged about the bed-clothes, and called your papa to her; she stooped over her, but the strength failed her already to say what she wanted; she only opened her eyes and groaned, "My God! my Lord! children! children!"' She then lifted up her hands, and dropped them again. What she meant by this God alone knows. I think that by this gesture she blessed you who were out of sight. God did not grant her to see her children before her end. Then she raised herself—my love—my darling—did so with her hands, and suddenly exclaimed in a voice that I cannot bear to think of, "Mother of God, do not forsake them!"' . . . Natalia Sawishna could say no more—she turned away and cried bitterly."

The book abounds with descriptions of scenery, sketched with an artist's hand, and rich in local colour. Here is a picture of a Russian harvest:—

"The large yellow shining field was bounded on one side only by a high blue-looking forest, which seemed to me like a far-distant mysterious place, behind which the world ended, or the uninhabited desert began. The whole field was covered with sheaves and reapers. Between the high thick corn on the rows already cut down, were to be seen the backs of women stooping, and armfuls of corn moving about, as they lifted them to put them in piles; a little on one side, in the shade, was a woman bending over a cradle; and the stubble-field was everywhere dotted with sheaves and corn-flowers. On the other side men in their shirt-sleeves stood on the *telegas*, setting up the sheaves after having shaken the dust off them. The *starost* in boots, and only just a tunic flung over him, and with a scoring stick in his hand, saw papa at a distance, lifted his lambswool cap, wiped his reddish head and beard with his pocket-handkerchief, and told the women to stand up. . . . The chatting of the people, the noise of horses and waggons, the joyous cry of the quails, the humming of the insects poised steadily in the air, the smell of the fields, the corn, and the steaming of the horses, a thousand different lights and shadows produced by the scorching sun on the light-yellow field; the blueish distant wood and the lilac-white clouds, the white cobwebs floating through the air and covering the field—all this was seen, heard, and felt by me."

And the descriptions of the road-side scenes are equally vivid,—the freshness of the woods and fields in the early morning, the midday dust and heat, and the quiet coolness of the twilight. Before concluding our remarks, we

\* Childhood and Youth. A Tale. By Count Nicola Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Maria von Meyenbug. London: Bell & Daldy.

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ought to speak of the excellence of the translation. We were surprised to see that it is described in the *National Review*, which is in general an excellent authority, as fluent, but not accurate. We have compared several passages, taken at random, with the original, and can speak positively to the fidelity with which Madame Von Meysenbug has executed a difficult task. It may be gratifying to the critic who complained, in the columns of the *Saturday Review*, of the manner in which Count Tolstoi has spoken of the Princess Kornakoff, to be informed that no such lady figures in Prince Dolgorukov's *Rossyskaya Rodoslovnaya Kniga*, the Red-book of the Russian Peerage, so that the statements relative to her ugliness are not likely to wound the feelings of any family.

## HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.\*

THIS book, which deserves the attention of all Scotchmen, has already been noticed in a cursory manner in the LONDON REVIEW ; but we find there is a peculiar interest in its account of the career of an Edinburgh professor of the old school. The subject might have been so treated as to command a more extensive popularity. The life of a distinguished Scotch professor during the latter half of the eighteenth century might easily have been made attractive to dwellers on the south of the Tweed, and to many who care nothing about the growth of our northern universities. Andrew Dalzel—the son of a Scotch tenant-farmer—was born in Linlithgowshire, in 1743. His father died early, and the maintenance of the family was undertaken by a generous uncle, minister of a parish in Galloway. The boy was educated at the parish school of Kirkliston, and afterwards at the University of Edinburgh. He became tutor in the Lauderdale family, and continued in that situation till he obtained the professorship of Greek at the early age of thirty. The arrangement was a peculiar one, but not uncommon in those days. Dalzel paid the former professor £300, and was thereupon appointed his colleague ; the salary was divided, and Dalzel retained the fees. He continued to hold this office till his death in the year 1806. His abilities have been estimated, without exaggeration by the author of this memoir, Mr. Cosmo Innes :—

"He was not, like some of his friends, addicted to abstract inquiry and speculation. He had no taste for natural science. He was not imaginative, and had no keen perception or enjoyment in the beautiful of nature or art. On the other hand, he was free of all pretension, had no morbid love of 'philosophizing,' or expressing common or old ideas in new and fine language. His soul was in his duty. He identified his happiness with the success of his class and his students, and with restoring the study of Greek in Scotland. After he had become Greek Professor, all literary aspirations, all ambition, the desire of an honourable position in society, the struggle for independence which had engaged his fresh youth, were all merged in his determination to succeed as a Greek teacher, or were made subservient to that object. It was to promote that object that he compiled and elaborated the *ANAAEKTA ΕΑΑΗΝΙΚΑ*—'Collectanea Graeca'—the first work of that kind now so common in this country, where, without parading authorities, the text of the chosen authors is well adjusted, and notes added sufficient to explain difficulties of language, to call attention to the less evident meaning of passages, and sometimes to throw light upon beauties. The merits of the work are—a very judicious selection of extracts, good scholarship and accuracy, in the text; discrimination, philological and grammatical acumen, and unfailing good sense, in the notes, which are in homely Latin, and might, with propriety, have been in English; but the critical rule was then unbending, which required annotations on the classics to be written in the universal language of the learned."

He never got beyond this style of literature. His books were only school-books ; mere " aids to the study of Greek." Yet by these unpretending labours he did more good than might have been effected by a man of loftier aims. He devoted himself to the duties of his chair ; his single ambition being to promote scholarship in Scotland, and especially the study of Greek. In his time that branch of literature had fallen into sad repute. For any schoolmaster to teach Greek was considered unwarrantable presumption. It was the privilege of the universities alone to afford this instruction ; and the universities, for the most part, confined themselves to the Greek grammar. Dalzel addressed himself to remedy this evil. He made his subject popular with his students ; he excited an interest in it throughout the country ; and by the high position which he won in the estimation of English and Continental scholars he imparted an unaccustomed dignity to the office which he held. The restoration of classical learning in Scotland was, throughout life, the object nearest to his heart. He always maintained that Presbyterianism had a great share in its decay. Lord Cockburn gives a story of Sydney Smith's—that he had overheard the professor muttering one dark night in the street to himself, " If it had not been for that confounded solemn league and covenant we would have made as good longs and shorts as they." Mr. Innes fears that Professor Dalzel was not entirely successful in restoring the study and taste for Greek in Scotland. The reason of this, according to Mr. Innes, is, that in the Scotch course of education there is " no time for that study which goes only to dignify the character and ennable and refine the thoughts." We cannot here discuss the causes of the defective state of learning in Scotland or the remedy for it : but there is a good deal in the reason assigned by Mr. Innes. It is abundantly clear that if the youth of a country, either from choice or from necessity, enter upon the active duties of life almost as soon as they reach majority, they may indeed attain success in an early age, but they cannot hope to combine with that success the acquirements of educated men.

A life so uneventful as that of Professor Dalzel, presents, it must be confessed, scanty materials for the biographer. But the interest which gathers round a man's life is not in proportion to its fertility in incident. This quiet northern professor was in familiar intercourse with a society which has never been surpassed, and of which Scotland has not even now ceased to be proud. Among his contemporaries and friends were Robertson, Ferguson, Blair, Adam Smith, David Hume, and Dugald Stewart. He was the centre of that circle of distinguished men who made Edinburgh their home at the close of the last century, a circle which, in the words of Sir Walter Scott, "has perhaps at no period been equalled, considering the depth and variety of talent which it embraced and concentrated."

Scotchmen, indeed, are constantly boasting about the Edinburgh society of that time, and we can believe their flattering representations. For it was not exclusively composed of learned men and men of science ; and it was free from all taint of provincialism. Men of the world, men eminent in politics, and in the conduct of affairs, gladly entered into it ; and the philosophers themselves had enjoyed the best society in France and England. But we do wish that some Scotchmen, instead of vaguely exalting this state of things, would give us some picture of it,—would bring these men before us, living and moving. It is very extraordinary that this has never been done. Materials in abundance must exist ; and any Scotchman who might discharge this task well, would do more for the real honour of his country, than all the societies for erecting monuments and talking nonsense which were ever constituted. The life of David Hume afforded an opportunity. But to succeed in such an attempt, some vividness of imagination would be requisite ; and vividness of imagination does appear to be among the many gifts of Mr. Burton. And here another chance has been thrown away. Dalzel, mixing freely in that society, yet not himself too conspicuous a member of it, was admirably calculated to have been made, as it were, the text of this theme. And, indeed, in the absence of any endeavour of this sort, very little is left to tell. Apart from the eminent men with whom he associated, Dalzel was nothing more than a gentle, conscientious, hard-working, Greek professor. Hence the “ Memoir ” before us is nothing but a collection of letters tacked together by a few necessary explanations. Most of these letters are confined to personal matters ; several discuss questions of scholarship ; but very few tell us anything of what is going on in the world. Once, however, we get a curious glimpse of the “ grey metropolis of the north ” in a state of unwonted excitement, and of the assembly of the Church of Scotland in a state of unwonted liberality :—

"The time of the Assembly is a very idle, dissipated time in Edinburgh; and, thirdly, when you consider that Mrs. Siddons arrived the very day of the opening of the Assembly, and made the town of Edinburgh quite mad with her astonishing playing, you will easily believe that for a fortnight no person in Edinburgh would write a letter which he could possibly put off. Mrs. S. played twelve times in three weeks, the houses crowded to the door every night. She met with such a flattering reception that it was universally agreed she played some of her parts here with a greater degree of exertion than she had ever done in London. Her 'Isabella,' in particular, produced astonishing effects. Several ladies shrieked out in the house and fainted away. One went stark mad, and when she was carried out of the house, she broke the windows of her carriage with her violent gesticulation. The country clergy went in crowds to see her, and no notice was taken of it by the Assembly. Nay, the Assembly itself, by a vote, postponed a great cause to a day on which she was not to play, in case the Assembly-house should have been thin in the afternoon."

The most interesting letters in the volume are those between Dalzel and Sir Robert Liston. They had been friends together at the parish school of Kirkliston, and their intimacy continued unbroken through life. The career of Liston was very remarkable. It reminds us of those fabulous days—the days of Charles Montague, and the days of Addison, when great nobles generously neglected their younger sons, and deserving young men from college were made ambassadors and secretaries of state. He left college with a good reputation, and an ambition soaring above a scholastic career. He began the world in the not very promising line of travelling tutor to young men of family. He managed, however, to pick up some knowledge of modern languages ; and this accomplishment brought him a proposal to go to Munich as secretary to Mr. Elliot. From this he rose with unvarying success through the various posts of profit and power—secretary of legation, chargé d'affaires, and finally ambassador, at about half the courts of Europe. During all this prosperity he kept up a close correspondence with his old schoolfellow, and there is an agreeable contrast between the simplicity of the professor's letters and the more experienced and man-of-the-world tone of the ambassador's. All these letters are delightful, and exhibit the characters both of Dalzel and of Liston in a very attractive aspect. Dalzel had also struck up an acquaintanceship—we are not told how—with Böttiger of Weimar ; and we have several pleasant and scholarly letters from the German professor, written in most excellent English. Still more interesting, we think, are a few letters from Heyne. These are in Latin, owing to Dalzel's ignorance of German ; but Mr. Innes has translated the longest—a passage from which is worth quoting, as showing the manly spirit of the old scholar—

"I reckon up all these things, that if you should miss in my commentaries on the Iliad a more delicate care in some particulars, you should have some reason to excuse me. But if there were among you one who thought proper to attack me somewhat sharply, I should bear it patiently, since, of my own countrymen, there are two former pupils of my own, whom I had assisted with all a father's indulgence, and raised to an honourable position, men covetous of praise and fame, when they found my old age forming an impediment to their efforts for taking the chief place in letters and fame, maliciously attacked me, and tried, with all their might, to obscure and extinguish my name. The one is Wolf, who endeavoured to snatch from me my work of editing Homer (*qui operam si Homero edendo mihi præripere laborabat*); the other, Vossius, who busied himself in publishing the fiercest censures of my work—both men of no common talents and learning. You see that I, who bear these things from my countrymen, if not with perfect equanimity, yet without much passion, am not likely to be very wroth with your countryman. But now I am even grateful to him, since his petulance has drawn from you that gratifying expression of candour and of your friendship which you write to me."

One letter has been omitted by Mr. Innes, the absence of which we regret. Dalzel, towards the close of his life, published, in a new edition of his "Collectanea," a dissertation on the tragic metres, in which Porson found cause of offence. This gave rise to the famous Porsonian letter, on which the great scholar was known to have prided himself. We cannot conceive why Mr. Innes should have given but a single page of extract from this letter, and also a very mutilated edition of Dalzel's reply. Interesting as many of the letters in this volume are, any of them should have given place to this one, nor can we see that the fact of this letter having been lately published in a very bad Life of Porson, is any reason why it should be omitted in a Life of Porson's correspondent.

These letters bear a strong testimony to the beauty of Dalzel's character. After a perusal of them we can easily believe that the Professor was popular with his classes, was absolutely adored in his home; in the words of Lord

\* History of the University of Edinburgh from its Foundation. By Andrew Dalzel, Professor of Greek in that University. With a Memoir of the Author. Vol. I. Memoir. Vol. II. History. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas. 1862.

Cockburn, was "a favourite with all boys, and all good men." His life was happy—as the life of such a man deserved to be. His biographer comments upon his worldly good fortune; but that good fortune was the natural consequence of the moderation of his desires. His ambition did not reach beyond an unostentatious discharge of duty, and such an ambition is not hard to satisfy. His amiable nature made domestic happiness certain; and, that secured, no pleasure, save the pleasure of teaching Greek, required to be added. Contented with his own lot—envying no others richer or more prosperous than himself—advancing learning by steady work in his own sphere of action, not by restless efforts after general popularity, the simple dignity of his scholar-like life affords a theme on which it is pleasant to dwell, and an example which may be usefully studied by many who at the present time profess to be labouring towards what was the constant purpose of Professor Dalzel's life, the spread of classical culture in Scotland.

The second volume, containing the history of the University of Edinburgh, by Professor Dalzell himself, will hardly attract the general reader. Indeed, the narrative ends before the real interest begins. The volume concludes precisely at the time when the arrangements now existing with regard to professorships in arts were completed, and when the medical faculty—now the chief glory of Edinburgh University—was established, in the year 1723. Yet the annals of the earlier period, subsequent to the foundation of the University in 1582, afford much information as to the origin of the present system of teaching, as to the emoluments, position, and duties of the professors for the first century of the University; and this information will prove most valuable to all who take an interest in the academical history of Scotland, and in the endeavours which are now being made to improve the Scottish universities.

### MUSIC.

#### ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA—CRYSTAL PALACE—MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS—M. SAINTON'S LAST SOIREE.

IMPORTANT innovations seldom produce immediate results. The public mind gradually, but slowly, habituates itself to social changes, especially when those changes have provoked much controversy, and encountered a fierce opposition. It is owing to this, we imagine, that the performances of the Royal Italian Opera during Passion-week have been but indifferently attended, although it would be wrong to ascribe the apathy of the public entirely to religious scruples. With the exception of Mr. Santley's *début*, the representations during the past week have not presented much interest or novelty. Neither "Il Trovatore" nor "La Favorita" are calculated greatly to awaken the sympathy of the public under present circumstances, and can hardly prove attractive without the aid of a competent *prima donna*. In the former opera, Mdlle. Gordosa at most achieved a *succès d'estime*, while in the latter, Mdlle. Csillag unfortunately had to contend with the recollection of Madame Grisi, who in Donizetti's romantic opera appeared to the utmost advantage. But, apart from personal considerations, it cannot be said that "La Favorita" is an opera that can have a permanent success without the assistance of first-class singers. Mdlle. Csillag, as well as Signor Neri-Baraldi, who, on this occasion, filled the part of Fernando, may, perhaps, justly lay claim to this title, and are, no doubt, by many considered worthy of it; but their physical attributes render them unsuited for a perfect embodiment of Donizetti's interesting conception. Without wishing to institute comparisons between these deserving singers and their immediate predecessors, it is impossible to forget the impression created in this opera by Mario and Grisi. They were the life and soul of the whole work. Theirs was not an example of mere stage illusion, a repetition of worn-out effects; it was a beautiful sketch from nature, a page torn from the book of life. In Mdlle. Csillag's performance, we missed the grace and charm which so greatly distinguished her celebrated contemporary. The Teutonic character was strongly perceptible throughout, both in a musical and histrionic point of view. In all her efforts, there was not one indication of impulse, not one flash of inspiration. Truth was wanting. The great aria in the second act, "O! mio Fernando," though given with much emphasis, failed to produce its wonted effect, through the mannerism by which it was characterized, and the absence of vocal power. But it was, above all, in the famous duet of the fourth act, in the scene where the unhappy "favourite" seeks the forgiveness of her betrayed lover, that Mdlle. Csillag failed to realize our expectations. Here both her singing and her acting were far too conventional to create any deep impression,—"Ars est celare artem." When Leonora throws herself at the feet of Fernando, and, with failing voice, exclaims,—

"Misericordia in quest' ora suprema,  
O sotto il piè tu mi dovrà schiacciar,"

—one of the most touching episodes in the opera,—there was nothing to reveal the deep interest of the situation, or to prove that Mdlle. Csillag fully understood the terrible force of her appeal. Again, in the triumphant climax, "Vien, tutto obbligo per te," when the happy lovers forgot all their former woes and trials, Mdlle. Csillag, it appeared to us, was more intent on nicely finishing her cadence than on giving expression to her joyous feelings. Altogether, we do not think the German *prima donna* as successful in "La Favorita," as in operas of a sterner nature, such as "Fidelio," or "Orfeo."

Signor Gardoni was to have been the Fernando of the evening, but, owing to indisposition, Signor Neri-Baraldi appeared in his stead, and acquitted himself of his arduous task in a most satisfactory manner. He adds to a good and sonorous voice, a considerable amount of energy and skill. His manner of singing is somewhat dry, and wanting in depth of expression, but all he does is so thoroughly correct and musician-like, that he invariably pleases his audience. The romanza "Spirto gentil" ("Angiol d'amor"), was given with the utmost grace and feeling, and obtained the honour of an enthusiastic *encore*. If Signor Neri-Baraldi's gifts were of a more elevated order, he might aspire to a more prominent position than he at present occupies.

The rôle of the King was again entrusted to M. Faure, who, though well qualified for the part, is too limited in voice to produce any stirring effect. His

song, "Per tanto amor," was very warmly applauded. Signor Nanni, who made his first appearance as Baldassare, possesses a good bass voice and a commanding appearance. There is little scope for distinction in the part of the priest, but, as far as we could judge from his present efforts, the new comer appears to be well-versed in the Italian school. As an actor his powers are yet to be tested. Orchestra and chorus were as usual quite up to the mark. The *divertissement* occurring in the opera might, we think, with advantage be curtailed.

If the theatres did not profit largely by their new privilege, the concerts, on the other hand, were more than usually prosperous. On Good Friday over 40,000 people assembled at the Crystal Palace, to hear a few notes fall from the lips of a favourite tenor. We say a few notes, since it was impossible to hear them all. As well may a great preacher expect to be audible over Trafalgar-square at midday as for Mr. Sims Reeves to hope that his voice will tell in the large transept of the Crystal Palace. The directors, it is true, while announcing that Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Weiss, and Madame Rudersdorff, would sing several airs from Handel's oratorios, did not thereby pledge their word that they would be *heard*, though it might be supposed that the one is a natural result of the other. Those, however, who were fortunate enough to come within reach of the voice were, no doubt, highly pleased with the efforts of the popular vocalists, who exerted themselves to the utmost to satisfy their not over fastidious audience. The concert held on Saturday, in the spacious concert-room, though not attended by a tenth part of the number of visitors who were present on the preceding day, was, nevertheless, far more satisfactory and more thoroughly appreciated. The great Joachim was again the centre of attraction, and, with his usual felicity, introduced Spohr's eighth concerto (Scena Cantante) and the Romance in F by Beethoven. Not one of the least noticeable features of this violinist's admirable talent is his unlimited versatility. This is the third great concerto which Herr Joachim has performed at the Crystal Palace concerts. Beethoven, Mendelssohn, and Spohr, have all come in for their share, and been interpreted with equal superiority. For our part we find as much to admire in the one as in the other; but we do not think the concerto in question quite suitable to a not essentially musical audience. At the Philharmonic Concerts, or the Musical Society of London, the violin music of Spohr is certain to find its ready admirers because the frequenters and subscribers of these meetings are well acquainted with the idiosyncrasy of the composer; but with less initiated audiences this is not always the case. The "scena cantante" is totally different in form to other concertos by the same author, and therefore not so easily understood, although replete with lovely melody and exquisite harmony. It is needless to state how it was rendered by the unrivalled artist. It was "singing" in the fullest acceptation of the word, as noble as it was pathetic. Beethoven's beautiful "Romanza" for the violin is likewise "a song without words," more expressive than many a lyric poem. Herr Joachim's success was complete. Two young ladies, Miss Camilla Chipp and Miss Armstrong, displayed much talent in some Italian airs. The voice of the former is more powerful than that of the latter; but both seem well-versed in the Italian style of singing, and gave great satisfaction. The band performed Beethoven's Seventh Symphony, and Auber's overture to "Le Cheval de Bronze" with remarkable vigour and precision. Pity that Herr Manns, who conducts with so much judgment and skill, does not possess more command over his movements, which, arising either from nervousness or habit, greatly interfere with the enjoyment of the listener, through diverting his attention from the music.

Mr. Arthur Chappell, the energetic director of the Monday Popular Concerts, has resumed his delightful meetings. Although the last concert did not present any great novelty, it was yet one of the most enjoyable of the series, remarkable alike for its interest and its perfection. The pieces belonged for the most part to the old *répertoire*, with the exception of a quartet of Haydn, "God Save the Emperor," Op. 76, played for the first time this season, but well known to all musical amateurs as one of the most brilliant and genial creations of the prolific composer. Both Herr Joachim and Mr. Charles Hallé, equal favourites at these concerts, were heard in some of their choicest performances, the former repeating Bach's "Chaconne," by general desire, the latter exhibiting his great talent in Beethoven's "Sonate Pathétique," whilst their united efforts were most fully appreciated in the famous but somewhat hackneyed "Kreutzer" sonata. The selection of the vocal music, as well as the choice of vocalists, has often been animadverted upon, but on this occasion no fault could possibly be found with either. Mr. Santley gave the audience an opportunity of congratulating him on his recent Italian successes, and at the same time proved beyond doubt that, whether in English or Italian music, his talent is equally conspicuous. The recitative and Romanza, "The Colleen Bawn," from Mr. Benedict's "Lily of Killarney," one of the best pieces in the Opera, created a perfect *furore*. The audience recalled the popular singer with enthusiasm, and, not satisfied with this token of approval, insisted on a repetition of the song, with which request Mr. Santley politely complied. A charming arietta, by Mariani, "Giovinettino della bella voce," was also given with much taste and *entrain*. Mdlle. Lancia was the other vocal performer, and pleased greatly in a song by Schubert, and the ballad "I'm alone," from Mr. Benedict's new opera. The last song, especially, was prettily sung by Miss Lancia, and beautifully accompanied by the composer.

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ought to speak of the excellence of the translation. We were surprised to see that it is described in the *National Review*, which is in general an excellent authority, as fluent, but not accurate. We have compared several passages, taken at random, with the original, and can speak positively to the fidelity with which Madame Von Meysenbug has executed a difficult task. It may be gratifying to the critic who complained, in the columns of the *Saturday Review*, of the manner in which Count Tolstoi has spoken of the Princess Kornakoff, to be informed that no such lady figures in Prince Dolgorukov's *Rossyskaya Rodoslovnyaya Kniga*, the Red-book of the Russian Peerage, so that the statements relative to her ugliness are not likely to wound the feelings of any family.

#### HISTORY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.\*

THIS book, which deserves the attention of all Scotchmen, has already been noticed in a cursory manner in the LONDON REVIEW; but we find there is a peculiar interest in its account of the career of an Edinburgh professor of the old school. The subject might have been so treated as to command a more extensive popularity. The life of a distinguished Scotch professor during the latter half of the eighteenth century might easily have been made attractive to dwellers on the south of the Tweed, and to many who care nothing about the growth of our northern universities. Andrew Dalzel—the son of a Scotch tenant-farmer—was born in Linlithgowshire, in 1743. His father died early, and the maintenance of the family was undertaken by a generous uncle, minister of a parish in Galloway. The boy was educated at the parish school of Kirkliston, and afterwards at the University of Edinburgh. He became tutor in the Lauderdale family, and continued in that situation till he obtained the professorship of Greek at the early age of thirty. The arrangement was a peculiar one, but not uncommon in those days. Dalzel paid the former professor £300, and was thereupon appointed his colleague; the salary was divided, and Dalzel retained the fees. He continued to hold this office till his death in the year 1806. His abilities have been estimated, without exaggeration by the author of this memoir, Mr. Cosmo Innes:—

"He was not, like some of his friends, addicted to abstract inquiry and speculation. He had no taste for natural science. He was not imaginative, and had no keen perception or enjoyment in the beautiful of nature or art. On the other hand, he was free of all pretension, had no morbid love of 'philosophizing,' or expressing common or old ideas in new and fine language. His soul was in his duty. He identified his happiness with the success of his class and his students, and with restoring the study of Greek in Scotland. After he had become Greek Professor, all literary aspirations, all ambition, the desire of an honourable position in society, the struggle for independence which had engaged his fresh youth, were all merged in his determination to succeed as a Greek teacher, or were made subservient to that object. It was to promote that object that he compiled and elaborated the *ANAAEKTA EAAHNIKA*—'Collectanea Graeca'—the first work of that kind now so common in this country, where, without parading authorities, the text of the chosen authors is well adjusted, and notes added sufficient to explain difficulties of language, to call attention to the less evident meaning of passages, and sometimes to throw light upon beauties. The merits of the work are—a very judicious selection of extracts, good scholarship and accuracy, in the text; discrimination, philological and grammatical acumen, and unfailing good sense, in the notes, which are in homely Latin, and might, with propriety, have been in English; but the critical rule was then unbending, which required annotations on the classics to be written in the universal language of the learned."

He never got beyond this style of literature. His books were only schoolbooks; mere "aids to the study of Greek." Yet by these unpretending labours he did more good than might have been effected by a man of loftier aims. He devoted himself to the duties of his chair; his single ambition being to promote scholarship in Scotland, and especially the study of Greek. In his time that branch of literature had fallen into sad repute. For any schoolmaster to teach Greek was considered unwarrantable presumption. It was the privilege of the universities alone to afford this instruction; and the universities, for the most part, confined themselves to the Greek grammar. Dalzel addressed himself to remedy this evil. He made his subject popular with his students; he excited an interest in it throughout the country; and by the high position which he won in the estimation of English and Continental scholars he imparted an unaccustomed dignity to the office which he held. The restoration of classical learning in Scotland was, throughout life, the object nearest to his heart. He always maintained that Presbyterianism had a great share in its decay. Lord Cockburn gives a story of Sydney Smith's—that he had overheard the professor muttering one dark night in the street to himself, "If it had not been for that confounded solemn league and covenant we would have made as good longs and shorts as they." Mr. Innes fears that Professor Dalzel was not entirely successful in restoring the study and taste for Greek in Scotland. The reason of this, according to Mr. Innes, is, that in the Scotch course of education there is "no time for that study which goes only to dignify the character and ennoble and refine the thoughts." We cannot here discuss the causes of the defective state of learning in Scotland or the remedy for it: but there is a good deal in the reason assigned by Mr. Innes. It is abundantly clear that if the youth of a country, either from choice or from necessity, enter upon the active duties of life almost as soon as they reach majority, they may indeed attain success in an early age, but they cannot hope to combine with that success the acquirements of educated men.

A life so uneventful as that of Professor Dalzel, presents, it must be confessed, scanty materials for the biographer. But the interest which gathers round a man's life is not in proportion to its fertility in incident. This quiet northern professor was in familiar intercourse with a society which has never been surpassed, and of which Scotland has not even now ceased to be proud. Among his contemporaries and friends were Robertson, Ferguson, Blair, Adam Smith, David Hume, and Dugald Stewart. He was the centre of that circle of distinguished men who made Edinburgh their home at the close of the last century, a circle which, in the words of Sir Walter Scott, "has perhaps at no period been equalled, considering the depth and variety of talent which it embraced and concentrated."

\* History of the University of Edinburgh from its Foundation. By Andrew Dalzel, Professor of Greek in that University. With a Memoir of the Author. Vol. I. Memoir. Vol. II. History. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas. 1862.

Scotchmen, indeed, are constantly boasting about the Edinburgh society of that time, and we can believe their flattering representations. For it was not exclusively composed of learned men and men of science; and it was free from all taint of provincialism. Men of the world, men eminent in politics, and in the conduct of affairs, gladly entered into it; and the philosophers themselves had enjoyed the best society in France and England. But we do wish that some Scotchmen, instead of vaguely exalting this state of things, would give us some picture of it,—would bring these men before us, living and moving. It is very extraordinary that this has never been done. Materials in abundance must exist; and any Scotchman who might discharge this task well, would do more for the real honour of his country, than all the societies for erecting monuments and talking nonsense which were ever constituted. The life of David Hume afforded an opportunity. But to succeed in such an attempt, some vividness of imagination would be requisite; and vividness of imagination does appear to be among the many gifts of Mr. Burton. And here another chance has been thrown away. Dalzel, mixing freely in that society, yet not himself too conspicuous a member of it, was admirably calculated to have been made, as it were, the text of this theme. And, indeed, in the absence of any endeavour of this sort, very little is left to tell. Apart from the eminent men with whom he associated, Dalzel was nothing more than a gentle, conscientious, hard-working, Greek professor. Hence the "Memoir" before us is nothing but a collection of letters tacked together by a few necessary explanations. Most of these letters are confined to personal matters; several discuss questions of scholarship; but very few tell us anything of what is going on in the world. Once, however, we get a curious glimpse of the "grey metropolis of the north" in a state of unwonted excitement, and of the assembly of the Church of Scotland in a state of unwonted liberality:—

"The time of the Assembly is a very idle, dissipated time in Edinburgh; and, thirdly, when you consider that Mrs. Siddons arrived the very day of the opening of the Assembly, and made the town of Edinburgh quite mad with her astonishing playing, you will easily believe that for a fortnight no person in Edinburgh would write a letter which he could possibly put off. Mrs. S. played twelve times in three weeks, the houses crowded to the door every night. She met with such a flattering reception that it was universally agreed she played some of her parts here with a greater degree of exertion than she had ever done in London. Her 'Isabella,' in particular, produced astonishing effects. Several ladies shrieked out in the house and fainted away. One went stark mad, and when she was carried out of the house, she broke the windows of her carriage with her violent gesticulation. The country clergy went in crowds to see her, and no notice was taken of it by the Assembly. Nay, the Assembly itself, by a vote, postponed a great cause to a day on which she was not to play, in case the Assembly-house should have been thin in the afternoon."

The most interesting letters in the volume are those between Dalzel and Sir Robert Liston. They had been friends together at the parish school of Kirkliston, and their intimacy continued unbroken through life. The career of Liston was very remarkable. It reminds us of those fabulous days—the days of Charles Montague, and the days of Addison, when great nobles generously neglected their younger sons, and deserving young men from college were made ambassadors and secretaries of state. He left college with a good reputation, and an ambition soaring above a scholastic career. He began the world in the not very promising line of travelling tutor to young men of family. He managed, however, to pick up some knowledge of modern languages; and this accomplishment brought him a proposal to go to Munich as secretary to Mr. Elliot. From this he rose with unvarying success through the various posts of profit and power—secretary of legation, chargé d'affaires, and finally ambassador, at about half the courts of Europe. During all this prosperity he kept up a close correspondence with his old schoolfellow, and there is an agreeable contrast between the simplicity of the professor's letters and the more experienced and man-of-the-world tone of the ambassador's. All these letters are delightful, and exhibit the characters both of Dalzel and of Liston in a very attractive aspect. Dalzel had also struck up an acquaintanceship—we are not told how—with Böttiger of Weimar; and we have several pleasant and scholarly letters from the German professor, written in most excellent English. Still more interesting, we think, are a few letters from Heyne. These are in Latin, owing to Dalzel's ignorance of German; but Mr. Innes has translated the longest—a passage from which is worth quoting, as showing the manly spirit of the old scholar:—

"I reckon up all these things, that if you should miss in my commentaries on the Iliad a more delicate care in some particulars, you should have some reason to excuse me. But if there were among you one who thought proper to attack me somewhat sharply, I should bear it patiently, since, of my own countrymen, there are two former pupils of my own, whom I had assisted with all a father's indulgence, and raised to an honourable position, men covetous of praise and fame, when they found my old age forming an impediment to their efforts for taking the chief place in letters and fame, maliciously attacked me, and tried with all their might, to obscure and extinguish my name. The one is Wolf, who endeavoured to snatch from me my work of editing Homer (*qui operam meam Homero edendo mihi praripere laborabat*); the other, Vossius, who basted himself in publishing the fiercest censures of my work—both men of no common talents and learning. You see that I, who bear these things from my countrymen, am not with perfect equanimity, yet without much passion, am not likely to be very wroth with your countryman. But now I am even grateful to him, since his petulance has drawn from you that gratifying expression of candour and of your friendship which you write to me."

One letter has been omitted by Mr. Innes, the absence of which we regret. Dalzel, towards the close of his life, published, in a new edition of his "Collectanea," a dissertation on the tragic metres, in which Porson found cause of offence. This gave rise to the famous Porsonian letter, on which the great scholar was known to have prided himself. We cannot conceive why Mr. Innes should have given but a single page of extract from this letter, also a very mutilated edition of Dalzel's reply. Interesting as many of the letters in this volume are, any of them should have given place to this one; nor can we see that the fact of this letter having been lately published in a very bad Life of Porson, is any reason why it should be omitted in a Life of Porson's correspondent.

These letters bear a strong testimony to the beauty of Dalzel's character. After a perusal of them we can easily believe that the Professor was popular with his classes, was absolutely adored in his home; in the words of Lord

Cockburn, who was happy—as the author of his work—sequence of events beyond an unprofitable hard to satisfy that secured, added. Contingent prosperity the sphere of action dignity of his and an example time professor Professor Dalzel.

The second by Professor I. precisely at the professorships the chiefest g. 1723. Yet the University present system professors for to prove most valuable Scotland, and Scottish universities.

ROYAL ITALIAN

IMPORTANT information gradually, but slowly changes have probably It is owing to the Opera during Paris would be wrong to With the exception of week have not probably "La Favorita" a under present circumstances a competent *primus* a *succès d'estime*, with the recollection appeared to the public cannot be said that without the assistance Neri-Baraldi, who justly lay claim to it; but their present embodiment of the institute comparison predecessors, it is impossible and Grisi. They were example of mere sketch from nature, performance, we missed celebrated contemporaries throughout, both in there was not one in wanting. The great with much emphasis by which it was claimed above all, in the famous "favourite" seeks to realize our expectations conventional to create Leonora throws her exclaims,—

one of the most the deep interest of the terrible force of the *okhlio per te*, when Mlle. Csillag, it appears giving expression to the German *prima donna*, such as "Fidus." Signor Gardoni was indisposition, Signor of his arduous task sonorous voice, a coming is somewhat dry, thoroughly correct in the *romanza* "Spirto" taste and feeling, and Neri-Baraldi's gifts were in prominent position the rôle of the *King* qualified for the part,

Cockburn, was "a favourite with all boys, and all good men." His life was happy—as the life of such a man deserved to be. His biographer comments upon his worldly good fortune; but that good fortune was the natural consequence of the moderation of his desires. His ambition did not reach beyond an unostentatious discharge of duty, and such an ambition is not hard to satisfy. His amiable nature made domestic happiness certain; and, that secured, no pleasure, save the pleasure of teaching Greek, required to be added. Contented with his own lot—envying no others richer or more prosperous than himself—advancing learning by steady work in his own sphere of action, not by restless efforts after general popularity, the simple dignity of his scholar-like life affords a theme on which it is pleasant to dwell, and an example which may be usefully studied by many who at the present time profess to be labouring towards what was the constant purpose of Professor Dalzel's life, the spread of classical culture in Scotland.

The second volume, containing the history of the University of Edinburgh, by Professor Dalzell himself, will hardly attract the general reader. Indeed, the narrative ends before the real interest begins. The volume concludes precisely at the time when the arrangements now existing with regard to professorships in arts were completed, and when the medical faculty—now the chief glory of Edinburgh University—was established, in the year 1723. Yet the annals of the earlier period, subsequent to the foundation of the University in 1582, afford much information as to the origin of the present system of teaching, as to the emoluments, position, and duties of the professors for the first century of the University; and this information will prove most valuable to all who take an interest in the academical history of Scotland, and in the endeavours which are now being made to improve the Scottish universities.

### MUSIC.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA—CRYSTAL PALACE—MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS—  
M. SAINTON'S LAST SOIREE.

IMPORTANT innovations seldom produce immediate results. The public mind gradually, but slowly, habituates itself to social changes, especially when those changes have provoked much controversy, and encountered a fierce opposition. It is owing to this, we imagine, that the performances of the Royal Italian Opera during Passion-week have been but indifferently attended, although it would be wrong to ascribe the apathy of the public entirely to religious scruples. With the exception of Mr. Santley's *début*, the representations during the past week have not presented much interest or novelty. Neither "Il Trovatore" nor "La Favorita" are calculated greatly to awaken the sympathy of the public under present circumstances, and can hardly prove attractive without the aid of a competent *prima donna*. In the former opera, Mdlle. Gordosa at most achieved a *succès d'estime*, while in the latter, Mdlle. Csillag unfortunately had to contend with the recollection of Madame Grisi, who in Donizetti's romantic opera appeared to the utmost advantage. But, apart from personal considerations, it cannot be said that "La Favorita" is an opera that can have a permanent success without the assistance of first-class singers. Mdlle. Csillag, as well as Signor Neri-Baraldi, who, on this occasion, filled the part of Fernando, may, perhaps, justly lay claim to this title, and are, no doubt, by many considered worthy of it; but their physical attributes render them unsuited for a perfect embodiment of Donizetti's interesting conception. Without wishing to institute comparisons between these deserving singers and their immediate predecessors, it is impossible to forget the impression created in this opera by Mario and Grisi. They were the life and soul of the whole work. Theirs was not an example of mere stage illusion, a repetition of worn-out effects; it was a beautiful sketch from nature, a page torn from the book of life. In Mdlle. Csillag's performance, we missed the grace and charm which so greatly distinguished her celebrated contemporary. The Teutonic character was strongly perceptible throughout, both in a musical and histrionic point of view. In all her efforts, there was not one indication of impulse, not one flash of inspiration. Truth was wanting. The great aria in the second act, "O! mio Fernando," though given with much emphasis, failed to produce its wonted effect, through the mannerism by which it was characterized, and the absence of vocal power. But it was, above all, in the famous duet of the fourth act, in the scene where the unhappy "favourite" seeks the forgiveness of her betrayed lover, that Mdlle. Csillag failed to realize our expectations. Here both her singing and her acting were far too conventional to create any deep impression,—"Ars est celare artem." When Leonora throws herself at the feet of Fernando, and, with failing voice, exclaims,—

" Misericordia in quest' ora suprema,  
O sotto il piè tu mi dovrà schiacciar,"

—one of the most touching episodes in the opera,—there was nothing to reveal the deep interest of the situation, or to prove that Mdlle. Csillag fully understood the terrible force of her appeal. Again, in the triumphant climax, "Vien, tutto pubblico per te," when the happy lovers forget all their former woes and trials, Mdlle. Csillag, it appeared to us, was more intent on nicely finishing her cadence than on giving expression to her joyous feelings. Altogether, we do not think the German *prima donna* as successful in "La Favorita," as in operas of a sterner nature, such as "Fidelio," or "Orfeo."

Signor Gardoni was to have been the Fernando of the evening, but, owing to indisposition, Signor Neri-Baraldi appeared in his stead, and acquitted himself of his arduous task in a most satisfactory manner. He adds to a good and sonorous voice, a considerable amount of energy and skill. His manner of singing is somewhat dry, and wanting in depth of expression, but all he does is so thoroughly correct and musician-like, that he invariably pleases his audience. The romanza "Spirto gentil" ("Angiol d'amor"), was given with the utmost taste and feeling, and obtained the honour of an enthusiastic *encore*. If Signor Neri-Baraldi's gifts were of a more elevated order, he might aspire to a more eminent position than he at present occupies.

The rôle of the King was again entrusted to M. Faure, who, though well qualified for the part, is too limited in voice to produce any stirring effect. His

song, "Per tanto amor," was very warmly applauded. Signor Nanni, who made his first appearance as Baldassare, possesses a good bass voice and a commanding appearance. There is little scope for distinction in the part of the priest, but, as far as we could judge from his present efforts, the new comer appears to be well-versed in the Italian school. As an actor his powers are yet to be tested. Orchestra and chorus were as usual quite up to the mark. The *divertissement* occurring in the opera might, we think, with advantage be curtailed.

If the theatres did not profit largely by their new privilege, the concerts, on the other hand, were more than usually prosperous. On Good Friday over 40,000 people assembled at the Crystal Palace, to hear a few notes fall from the lips of a favourite tenor. We say a few notes, since it was impossible to hear them all. As well may a great preacher expect to be audible over Trafalgar-square at midday as for Mr. Sims Reeves to hope that his voice will tell in the large transept of the Crystal Palace. The directors, it is true, while announcing that Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Weiss, and Madame Rudersdorff, would sing several airs from Handel's oratorios, did not thereby pledge their word that they would be *heard*, though it might be supposed that the one is a natural result of the other. Those, however, who were fortunate enough to come within reach of the voice were, no doubt, highly pleased with the efforts of the popular vocalists, who exerted themselves to the utmost to satisfy their not over fastidious audience. The concert held on Saturday, in the capacious concert-room, though not attended by a tenth part of the number of visitors who were present on the preceding day, was, nevertheless, far more satisfactory and more thoroughly appreciated. The great Joachim was again the centre of attraction, and, with his usual felicity, introduced Spohr's eighth concerto (Scena Cantante) and the Romance in F by Beethoven. Not one of the least noticeable features of this violinist's admirable talent is his unlimited versatility. This is the third great concerto which Herr Joachim has performed at the Crystal Palace concerts. Beethoven, Mendelssohn, and Spohr, have all come in for their share, and been interpreted with equal superiority. For our part we find as much to admire in the one as in the other; but we do not think the concerto in question quite suitable to a not essentially musical audience. At the Philharmonic Concerts, or the Musical Society of London, the violin music of Spohr is certain to find its ready admirers because the frequenters and subscribers of these meetings are well acquainted with the idiosyncrasy of the composer; but with less initiated audiences this is not always the case. The "scena cantante" is totally different in form to other concertos by the same author, and therefore not so easily understood, although replete with lovely melody and exquisite harmony. It is needless to state how it was rendered by the unrivalled artist. It was "singing" in the fullest acceptation of the word, as noble as it was pathetic. Beethoven's beautiful "Romanza" for the violin is likewise "a song without words," more expressive than many a lyric poem. Herr Joachim's success was complete. Two young ladies, Miss Camilla Chipp and Miss Armstrong, displayed much talent in some Italian airs. The voice of the former is more powerful than that of the latter; but both seem well-versed in the Italian style of singing, and gave great satisfaction. The band performed Beethoven's Seventh Symphony, and Auber's overture to "Le Cheval de Bronze" with remarkable vigour and precision. Pity that Herr Manns, who conducts with so much judgment and skill, does not possess more command over his movements, which, arising either from nervousness or habit, greatly interfere with the enjoyment of the listener, through diverting his attention from the music.

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A concert of the same class, and of equal excellence, took place on Wednesday last at M. Sainton's residence, it being the last of the series with which the celebrated violinist has favoured his friends and admirers during the winter season. His quartet meetings differed from the Monday Popular Concerts in one important point, viz., in the introduction of new and unknown works, which has proved a great feature in his admirably selected programmes. At the third concert, held a few weeks since, a pianoforte trio, by no less a man than Auber, was the chief point of attraction. If we state that this was the great composer's first published work, Op. 1, it will readily be believed that the ideas abounding in this youthful production were chiefly remarkable for elegance, brightness, and *esprit*. The influence of Haydn and Mozart was clearly perceptible, not so

much in style as in form. Who could have predicted that the author of this graceful composition would one day be at the head of a great school, and become the glory of his country? The characteristics of his fluent, pure, and brilliant muse, so conspicuous in every bar of this trio, have been naturally much developed and matured in his later creations. We heard, on the same evening, a quartet for stringed instruments by a German composer resident in London, Herr Meyer Lutz. There is a great deal that is good and clever in this work. It is written with care and thought, displays considerable ingenuity of combination, and happily combines the modern with the classical elements. A certain vagueness of idea, and also a too decided leaning towards theatrical effect, is observable in this quartet; but the more Herr Lutz will study the great models, and master the rules of pure quartet-writing, the more will he perceive the errors into which he may, through inexperience, have fallen.

One of the most promising and talented composers at present residing among us is unquestionably M. Silas. His works not only betoken a thoughtful mind and an able hand, they are also far above the common order, and invariably evince a high aim and a noble ambition. We are greatly indebted to M. Sainton for having afforded us an opportunity of hearing again a composition by M. Silas, which, at his own concert last year, obtained a legitimate success—we mean the trio for pianoforte, violin, and violoncello, in C. The two first movements, *allegro non troppo* and the *scherzo vivace*, are particularly striking, both as regards invention and treatment. In the allegro, the pianoforte sets out with a broad theme, afterwards taken up by the two other instruments, and preserved throughout with admirable unity and boldness. In the scherzo, the composer has hit upon a very happy idea, which he knows how to use to the best purpose. This movement is as spirited as it is quaint. The andante and finale are less original, and, though pleasing in style, do not possess the distinct character of the preceding movements. The trio was capitally executed by the composer, assisted by M. Sainton and M. Paque. A prelude and impromptu, Op. 37, likewise composed and performed by M. Silas, gave universal pleasure. The impromptu partakes somewhat of Chopin's music, though it is by no means a copy, or even an imitation. The concert opened with Mendelssohn's quintett in A, admirably played by MM. Sainton, Pollitzer, Doyle, W. Hann, and Paque. The last-named gentleman pleased the audience greatly in a new fantasia on airs from "Un Ballo in Maschera," displaying his fine tone and technical ability to great advantage. Madame Sainton-Dolby, for the first and only time during the past series, relieved the instrumental pieces by some of her favourite songs, and though suffering from the effects of a severe cold, managed to give a pleasant variety to the music of the evening. Altogether, these *soirées* have been among the best and choicest entertainments of the season.

#### CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE. NEW SPECTRUM EXPERIMENTS.

WE noticed last week some interesting experiments of Professors Roscoe and Clifton on the influence of temperature in modifying the appearance of metallic spectra, new lines appearing and others disappearing at the enormous temperature of the electric spark. We now learn from Mr. Crookes that, by employing the class of salts known as the chlorates, somewhat similar effects may be observed with an ordinary gas flame. It is difficult to imagine anything more gorgeous than some of the spectra thus produced. By taking a small lump of chlorate of baryta, and supporting it about the sixteenth of an inch from a colourless gas flame, it decomposes with decrepitation, imparting its peculiar green and red tints to the flame, and exhibiting in the spectroscope an appearance perhaps unsurpassed in the whole range of metallic spectra. Each line stands out with extreme brilliancy, and a multitude of new lines, both green and red, unobserved with ordinary baryta salts, come into view. If chlorate of potash be taken, and a fused bead of it, supported upon platinum wire, be introduced into the flame, it decomposes at first with less rapidity than the baryta salt; but after a short time it goes off with almost explosive violence, whilst at the same time that portion of its spectrum which is usually continuous splits up in parts into numerous fine lines. When the chlorate of soda is taken there is sometimes observed an appearance of inversion, the usual line appearing dark on a dazzlingly brilliant ground. If the more luminous portion of the spectrum is shaded off, traces of lines are visible in the more refrangible portion. The appearance shown by the chlorate of lithia is very beautiful; in addition to the red and orange line (which is very bright), the newly-discovered blue band is distinctly seen, and when the ignition is at its greatest intensity, another more refrangible blue line is also seen. Chlorate of strontia shows, in addition to brilliant hues in the lower portion of its spectrum, and the well-known blue line, three other blue or violet lines some distance apart. Chlorate of lime gives the blue band very brilliantly, and also other lines, as yet unrecorded. Chlorate of copper is especially brilliant, and its spectrum is remarkable for changing in appearance according to the state of decomposition of the chlorate, the final spectrum differing in several respects from the one observed when the salt is first introduced into the flame. Besides these, many other metals show brilliant and characteristic spectra, when ignited, in the form of chlorates. The lead and cadmium spectra are very beautiful and exceedingly definite.

It will be seen from these notes that the employment of the chlorates gives a ready means of producing spectra of an intensity approaching the high degree hitherto only attainable by the employment of the electric spark; the blue strontium and lithium lines mentioned by Professors Roscoe and Clifton being readily visible by this means.

The chlorates may be readily prepared by precipitating chlorate of baryta (which may be obtained in commerce), by the sulphate or carbonate of the desired metal, then filtering off the precipitated sulphate or carbonate of baryta, and evaporating the clear solution; they may also be prepared by adding to chlorate of baryta the equivalent quantity of sulphuric acid so as to set free the

chloric acid, filtering the sulphate of baryta off through asbestos or gun-cotton, and then neutralising the resulting chloric acid with the desired metallic carbonate or oxide.

Mr. Crookes has not succeeded in obtaining a characteristic spectrum from arsenic in any of its compounds. A delicate spectrum test for this metal would be of the highest importance to toxicologists, but it appears, with the means hitherto employed to examine it, to give a continuous spectrum. Antimony, likewise, gives no better result.

#### SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

SCIENCE IN VENEZUELA.—The leading province of the republic of Venezuela, the well-known Caracas, has long been noted for beautiful scenery, vast inundations, earthquakes, fevers, and aversion to the yoke of Spain. But the birth-place of Bolivar is now acquiring a character for advancing the cultivation of science; we have received some numbers of the "Revista Cientifica del Colegio de Ingenieros de Venezuela," the publication of which was begun this year; and with them an almanac of great claims to notice, the "Anuario de Observaciones de la Oficina Central del Colegio de Ingenieros de Venezuela, para el año de 1862." In this ephemeris the astronomical portion is reduced from the English "Nautical Almanac" to the meridian of Caracas by adopting and applying as the arc of longitude 4h. 27m. 39.4s west; with ready means of verification for polar distances in a series of geographical co-ordinates of latitudes, longitudes, and heights above the sea, carefully tabulated, and showing the respective authorities. There are corrections for the refraction of the heavenly bodies in altitude, and tables for reducing the barometer to the existing state of the atmosphere. The meteorological phenomena are well discussed; and there are registers of the measures, weights, and moneys of various countries. Amongst other matters in these publications there is a statistical table of the "Movimiento de la Poblacion." In this document we are surprised to find how low in the moral scale must be placed that archiepiscopal city, a city remarkable for its extensive churches and its religious university. It is stated that in the year 1860 there were born in five parishes of Caracas, 764 boys and 691 girls, of whom 680 were illegitimate and 92 foundlings!

THE COMPANION OF SIRIUS, discovered by Mr. Clark, in January last, with his 18½ achromatic object-glass, has been observed by Professor Bond with the Harvard College refractor, and the following data obtained:—

Angle of position ...	...	...	...	85° 15' ± 1° 1
Distance ...	...	...	...	10° 37' ± 0° 2

A discussion of the declinations of Sirius, confirming the results of Bessel and Peters, has recently been published by Mr. Safford, the assistant at the observatory. It will require one or two years' observations to prove the physical connection of the two stars as a binary system; the theoretical period of revolution is about fifty years. At present, all that can be known is that the direction of the companion star accords with the theory.

LONGITUDE SURVEY.—The method employed by M. Peters to determine the difference of longitude between the observatory of Altona and the point Schwerin of the triangulation of the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg, is very interesting, and capable of giving the greatest precision. The passages of the same stars were observed over the meridians of the two stations by the aid of the same chronograph attached to one of the two instruments, and connected to the other by the electric telegraph. MM. Peters, Pape, and Paschen, took charge of the observations at Altona and Schwerin. After the most careful verification of the instruments and the elimination of errors of observation, the final result given was 5° 54', 557 ± 0° 008, for the longitude of the station at Schwerin to the east of the observatory of Altona. The chronograph, or registering apparatus, was constructed by M. Krille, and is superior to any in use at Greenwich, Cambridge (America), Munich, &c., by some important improvements. To break or make the electric current, M. Krille no longer makes the clock-movement glance over the surface of memory, but he adapts to the escapement of the chronometer a very thin film of mica, which, by its movements to and fro, separates at determinate intervals two jets of mercury, which issue from two slender and opposite tubes. When the plate of mica is raised, the two liquid veins form one continuous stream suspended between the openings of the two tubes, and the electric current passes without obstruction; but when the mica cuts the thread of mercury, the electric current is arrested. The effect of this mechanism on the movement of the clock is absolutely *nil*. The notation of the phenomena observed is made upon a cylinder by diamond points, which trace their marks on paper blackened with black chalk—a method more certain than the ink-pens used at Cambridge, or than the holes pricked on paper at Greenwich and Gotha. The same current which works the chronograph is also utilized for the continuous comparison of the chronometers in the various rooms of the observatory. The clock of the meridian circle is placed in a case which protects it from variations of temperature, currents of air, &c.; and it is one of the great advantages of this new method that it permits the like arrangements for the chronograph.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATORY AT PEKIN.—It has been officially announced at St. Petersburg that the Russian Government have sanctioned the establishment of a magnetic and meteorological observatory at Pekin.

ARTESIAN WELLS IN ALGERIA.—M. Kind, the engineer of the Artesian wells of Passy, has obtained two new successes in Algeria. In a well sunk at Haouch-Baraki, in the plain of the Metidje, at about 137 yards a jet of water was made, giving 120 gallons a minute. The boring being continued to 154 yards, the supply of water was increased, and rose above the soil; its temperature was 77° Fahrenheit. In another boring, made at Haouch-ben-Tallah, in the same plain, carried to about 220 yards, a fountain of water was likewise met with.

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

Royal Institution, 11th April.—Dr. Hofmann lectured "On Manne and Magenta." Every one was familiar with the fact of these beautiful colours being derived from coal; but there might be many unacquainted with the means by which the transformation was accomplished. Briefly expressed, then, the aim of the lecturer was to show the way from coal to colour.

Colour is intimately associated with light; without light there is no colour. The remark applies in a double sense to the colours derived from coal, for it is to the introduction of gas for illuminating our streets and houses that we are indebted for our acquisition of them. But while gas is now of half a century's date, coal-colours are but of very recent birth. These colours are

obtained and long researches interest. the manuf water and which pass coal-tar oil one of the appreciate present detail, the combination coal consists the ash afterbutions w the general number of now genera types. Opt to their na hydrogen, u turer illustr cubes respect the like num Chemists as free state, o two atoms of marked H, r one volume o then being fi the molecule o

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AMMONIA into P

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obtained from a secondary product generated in the manufacture of gas, and long used for a variety of practical purposes, but which the later researches of chemists have proved to be an inexhaustible mine of wealth and interest. The starting point, then, in the production of Mauve and Magenta, is the manufacture of coal-gas. This gas, after leaving the retorts, is passed through water and subjected to other processes, to free it from the oily and other substances which pass over from the retorts with it. In these reservoirs the oily matter or coal-tar oil is collected. "To my mind," he continued, "this coal-tar oil is one of the most wonderful productions in nature. Nor can any one fail to appreciate the interest felt in it by the chemist when the number of substances eliminated from it are regarded." The only substances, however, which claimed present attention were mauve and magenta. But before treating of these in detail, the lecturer gave, by means of models, an excellent idea of the natural combinations by which such compounds were produced. To say, simply, that coal consists of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, and substances remaining in the ash after combustion, and that these elements entered into a variety of combinations would be to teach very little. We must, therefore, take a brief view of the general principles elaborated by the researches of chemists. The infinite number of terrestrial substances, mineral, vegetable, or animal, chemists are now generally agreed, may be referred to a comparatively small number of types. Opinions are divided as to the actual number of these, and even as to their nature. But they are invariably few, and amongst them figure hydrogen, water, and ammonia. The meaning of the term *types* the lecturer illustrated by means of three frames fitted to hold 2, 3, or 4 painted cubes respectively, which he termed "type-moulds." Into these he introduced the like number of painted cubes, representing elementary or compound atoms. Chemists assume that the smallest particle of hydrogen which exists in the free state, or, to use the chemical term, the molecule of hydrogen, consists of two atoms of hydrogen. The first "type-mould" then filled with two cubes

marked H, represents the molecule of HYDROGEN— $\boxed{H} \boxed{H}$ . In water we have one volume of oxygen associated with two of hydrogen, the second "type-mould" then being filled with three cubes marked respectively H, H, O, will represent

the molecule of WATER— $\boxed{H} \boxed{O} \boxed{H}$ . Lastly, in ammonia we have one volume of

nitrogen united to three of hydrogen, the third "type-mould" then filled with three cubes marked H and one marked N, will represent the molecule of

AMMONIA— $\boxed{H} \boxed{N} \boxed{H}$ . Let us now see how other substances may be derived

from the primitive type-forms. By taking out of these type-moulds an atom of hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, respectively, and putting into their places atoms of chlorine, sulphur, and phosphorus, we convert the HYDROGEN into hydrochloric acid— $\boxed{H} \boxed{Cl}$ ; the WATER into sulphuretted hydrogen— $\boxed{H} \boxed{S} \boxed{H}$ ; and the

AMMONIA into phosphoretted hydrogen— $\boxed{H} \boxed{P} \boxed{H}$ . The molecules of each of these

new compounds having respectively the same number of atoms as the original ones, we consider hydrochloric acid constituted upon the *hydrogen-type*; sulphuretted hydrogen on the *water-type*; phosphoretted hydrogen on the *ammonia-type*. Compound atoms can be combined with the same facility. Thus, for example, the compound atom Ethyl, consisting of two atoms of carbon and five of hydrogen. By inserting an atom or cube into each of the "type-moulds," we see how we could form ethylated hydrogen  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{H}$ ; ethylated water

$\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{O}$  (alcohol); and  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{O}$  (ether); and the ethylated ammonia

$\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{N}$  (ethylamine),  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{N}$  (diethylamine),  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{2} \boxed{5} \boxed{N}$  (triethylamine).

We may repeat some of these changes with another compound atom, phenyl, containing six atoms of carbon and five of hydrogen. If we charge each of our "type-moulds" with an atom of phenyl we have—1. Phenylated hydrogen

$\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{H}$ ; phenylated water  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{O}$ ; phenylated ammonia  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{N} \boxed{H}$ ,—sub-

stances better known as benzol, phenol, and aniline; and the existence of which in coal-tar oil has already been pointed out.

We may now return to our starting point. How are these substances produced in the distillation of coal? In coal we have the elements of the three types of matter, and we find that hydrogen, water, and ammonia, are produced in very appreciable quantities during its distillation. The quantity of free hydrogen is generally small, and, mixed as it is with the carbonated hydrogen, its presence is not easily demonstrated by experiment. On the other hand, nothing is easier than to show the water and ammonia in the coal-tar oil. Now, consider that our types are generated from coal in the presence of large quantities of carbon and hydrogen which are capable of combining, under the influence of heat, in proportions varying to an almost unlimited extent, to form compound atoms similar to ethyl and phenyl; remember, moreover, that these atoms are capable of displacing, partly or entirely, the hydrogen of our types, and the mind without difficulty will realize the number of compounds which may be formed. The lecturer used the word *may*, for many as were the products already known the destructive distillation of coal must still be an almost inexhaustible source of new compounds.

Insuperable as the obstacles at first appear, the separation of the individual substances from the complex mixture, called coal-tar oil, is in reality simple, and may, in a great measure, be effected by distillation, their boiling points varying to a very considerable degree; while additional means of purification offer themselves in the different deportment of these substances under the influence of chemical re-agents. No more illustrative examples of this could be selected than are afforded by the three substances under consideration, benzol, phenol, and aniline. To demonstrate this experimentally two glass cylinders were half-filled with benzol, two with phenol, and two others with aniline. A solution of litmus having been added, one sample of each of the three substances was treated with acid; the others with alkali. In the case of Benzol, that indifferent hydro-carbon, being insoluble, both in acid and alkali, was found to float upon the coloured litmus-water. Phenol being an acid Water-derivative was not acted upon by the acid, but readily dissolved in the alkali; while Aniline being an Ammonia-derivative exhibited the converse, resisting the action of the alkali, but yielding to the acid. Each of these coal-tar oil constituents has received important application in the arts and manufactures. Benzol is the most convenient solvent for caoutchouc; as an agent for removing oil and grease, it has become an ordinary household article. Phenol, when treated with nitric acid, yields the beautiful yellow dye called by chemists carbazotic acid; but the practical interest which attaches to it will be, perhaps, best appreciated when attention is directed to its great analogy to creosote; indeed, no small portion of the creosote of commerce is phenol. Lastly, aniline is the source of "mauve" and "magenta."

The amount of aniline which exists in coal-tar is very small; and its preparation from this source on a commercial scale could never be attempted. Fortunately, however, chemists can, by a series of processes, produce it in any quantity. Benzol—the phenylated hydrogen—may readily be converted into aniline, the phenylated ammonia.

Benzol is readily attacked by nitric acid, in which it dissolves, producing a liquid of a deep red colour that, on the addition of water, deposits a heavy yellow oil, entirely different from benzol, which floats. This re-action will be intelligible if nitric acid be regarded as a Water-derivative. It is, in fact, water, for one of the hydrogen atoms of which a compound atom of nitrogen and oxygen has been

substituted. Thus water =  $\boxed{H} \boxed{O}$ ; nitric acid =  $\boxed{NO} \boxed{H} \boxed{O}$ . When nitric acid acts on benzol, the constituent atoms are rearranged and new combinations effected.

Thus, for benzol  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{H}$  + nitric acid  $\boxed{NO} \boxed{2} \boxed{H} \boxed{O}$ , we get by the change nitro-benzol  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{NO} \boxed{2}$  + water  $\boxed{H} \boxed{O}$ ; nitrobenzol being the heavy yellow liquid noticed above.

The transformation of benzol into nitrobenzol, discovered by Mitzcherlich, is only the preparatory operation for the production of aniline. The method of converting nitrobenzol was discovered by Zinin. It consists in submitting it to the action of nascent hydrogen. Under the influence of this agent the compound atom  $\boxed{NO} \boxed{2}$ —which in nitrobenzol is associated with phenyl—is decomposed; its oxygen ( $O_2$ ) is converted into water; the remaining nitrogen (N) and the phenyl assimilating the necessary quantity of hydrogen to form phenylated ammonia or aniline.

To explain this change, the formula of nitrobenzol  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{NO} \boxed{2}$ , may be written  $\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{N} \boxed{O} \boxed{O}$

Then the changes will be—  
NITROBENZOL is by NASCENT HYDROGEN

$\boxed{CH} \boxed{6} \boxed{5} \boxed{N} \boxed{O} \boxed{O}$  +  $\boxed{H} \boxed{H}$  +  $\boxed{H} \boxed{H}$  +  $\boxed{H} \boxed{H}$  = changed into

WATER and ANILINE.

$\boxed{H} \boxed{O}$  +  $\boxed{H} \boxed{O}$  +  $\boxed{H} \boxed{N}$

The hydrogen necessary for this purpose may be furnished in many ways, but the most convenient method for our purpose is to submit nitro-benzol to the action of metallic iron and acetic acid—a process first proposed by M. Béchamp. This transformation was experimentally illustrated by the lecturer—a considerable quantity of water and oily liquid coming over from the glass retort into the receiver. This oily liquid was at once recognized as aniline, by its peculiar deportment with solution of chloride of lime. On pouring a single drop of this distillate into a beaker filled with the chloride of lime solution, a splendid purple cloud almost immediately appears. The beautiful colour thus given has long been known, for chloride of lime has always been used as the test for aniline. It was, in fact, by this reaction, that the existence of aniline in coal-tar was first ascertained, and the old name of aniline—kyanol—alludes to this blue colour-reaction. Several other oxidizing agents—chromic acid for instance—were likewise known to produce coloured compounds from aniline, but all thus obtained were of a very ephemeral nature; indeed, while the lecturer was speaking the purple cloud in the beaker had changed to a dingy reddish precipitate.

Mr. W. Perkin was the first to have the happy idea of investigating the circumstances under which this beautiful purple might be prepared in a permanent form applicable for dyeing. In this he succeeded by submitting the aniline to the action of sulphuric acid and bichromate of potassium. Here, then, is the first step in this important branch of chemical industry.

Through the kindness of Mr. Perkin, the lecturer was enabled to exhibit fine specimens of his aniline-purple, or "mauve," in the dry state and in solution, the former a brownish lump, with a remarkably coppery lustre. "Its extraordinary tintorial powers," said the lecturer, "will be appreciated when I tell you this beautiful violet-coloured solution (exhibited) contains not more than the tenth of a grain of 'mauve' in a gallon of alcohol. You will also understand the considerable value which this substance possesses when I add that, weight for weight, I am told by Mr. Perkin this colouring matter is sold at the price of

metallic platinum. Very little is known respecting the nature of 'mauve.' Its composition is not yet made out, and, as a matter of course from this, the process by which it is formed remains as yet unexplained. 'Magenta' is one of the fancy names given to the splendid crimson which is likewise generated from aniline by the action of an oxidizing agent. This substance was first observed in purely scientific researches by the action of tetrachloride of carbon on aniline. On a large scale it was first obtained by the French chemist, Verguin, who produced it by the action of tetrachloride of tin. Numerous other processes were subsequently found; amongst them, the treatment of aniline with the chloride or nitrate of mercury, and with arsenic acid."

Magenta—often called fuchsine, roseine, &c.—soon became an article of large industrial use. In France, Messrs. Renard & Franc; in this country, Messrs. Simpson, Maule, & Nicholson, and several other firms, are engaged in the manufacture of this splendid dye on an enormous scale. To Mr. Nicholson, more especially, belongs the merit of having developed this new industry to an unprecedented degree of perfection. The compounds he produces are so pure that chemists have been able to determine their composition, and so at least to lift the corner of the veil of mystery which still hides the exact knowledge of the formation of these coloured derivatives of aniline. In the pure state magenta is finely crystalline and colourless, or only faintly tinted, in which state chemists term it rosaniline, and distinguish it by the formula  $C_{20} H_{21} N_3 O$ . Rosaniline is a base, or ammonia-derivative, which forms a series of beautiful salts. It is in the saline state of combination that it acts as a crimson dye. Into a shallow porcelain dish a few of the white crystals were thrown, and over them a small quantity of acetic acid was poured. On the application of gentle heat the beautiful crimson colour instantaneously appeared. It is only in solution that even the salts of rosaniline are crimson-coloured. On evaporating this solution the red colour entirely vanishes and a splendid green crystalline substance remains, presenting the brilliant metallic lustre so remarkable in the wing-cases of the rose-beetle.

"My friend, Mr. Nicholson," Dr. Hofmann continued, "has placed before you the finest series of rosaniline salts which have ever been produced, together with all the products involved in the manufacture of aniline and of aniline dyes; and not content with this display, he has sent a specimen of acetate of rosaniline such as has not been seen before"—an immense and gorgeous crown formed of the brilliant crystals of "magenta," which had been formed in a vessel containing not less than the value of £8,000 of this exquisite dye.

Having then explained the stages through which coal has to pass before it becomes "mauve" or "magenta," the lecturer next exhibited a series of specimens furnished by Mr. Nicholson, to show the relative proportion in quantity of the ultimate dye to an original mass of a hundredweight of coal—the quantity of dye being quite in insignificant proportion.

Dr. Hofmann then illustrated by experiments its high tintorial powers, and the minute quantities which sufficed to do a great deal of practical work. He also dyed various articles, thus exhibiting the greater affinity of mauve and magenta for animal substances, and showing how, by a mixture of silk or wool with cotton or linen stuffs, ornamental patterns could be obtained by discharging by dilute ammonia the dye from the vegetable fabric, the colour of the silk or wool being at once fixed by simple dipping without any mordant, and resisting the action of the chemical agents employed. Of the *affection* of these dyes for animal substances, the Professor narrated the ludicrous case of one of his friends who, viewing the beautiful solution of magenta by transmitted light, spilt some of it over his magnificent beard. Opinions differ about red beards, but there was no difference of opinion about a magenta beard. Its owner even had no affection for it, and every resource of the laboratory was tried, but in vain. The *couleur de magenta* was changed to blue, green, and all the colours of the rainbow. The difficulty was only overcome at last by—a Sheffield razor.

In conclusion, Dr. Hofmann pleasantly adverted to the history of mauve and magenta—and its moral. Mauve and magenta, he said, were essentially Royal Institution colours. The foundation of this new industry was laid in Albemarle-street. Benzol, which may be looked upon as the raw material, was the discovery of Faraday. The *Philosophical Transactions* for 1825 contain the description of his experiments; and the original specimen of benzol made thirty-seven years ago in the laboratory of the Institution was exhibited. Benzol has furnished us with mauve and magenta. It has done more than this. Ever since chemists became acquainted with this wonderful body, it has been the carrier of the leading ideas of the science. In the hands of Mitscherlich, Gerhardt and Laurent, Fritzsche, Zinin, Mansfield, and others, benzol has been a powerful lever for the advancement of chemistry. The scientific foundation having been laid, the time of practical application arrived, and by one bound, as it were, its beautiful derivatives appeared in the market-place of life. "Need I say more?" the lecturer finished. "The moral of mauve and magenta is plain. I read it in your faces. Whenever any of your chemical friends, full of enthusiasm, exhibits a new discovery, do not damp his ardour by that most terrible of all questions, What is the use? Let him indulge in his pursuit. He will not work for mauve and magenta, but for *truth* alone."

#### MUSICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ALTHOUGH the public has been faithfully kept *au courant* of all matters connected with the International Exhibition, their information with regard to the musical arrangements for the opening ceremonial has been anything but complete. Strange rumours have been for some time in circulation concerning the works that have been composed for the occasion and their authors. From all we can gather, even now, things appear to be in sad confusion. In the *Times* of Thursday appeared a letter from Signor Verdi, who, as our readers are aware, was invited by the Commissioners to represent musical Italy at the approaching international gathering. In that letter the celebrated *Maestro* contradicts, in plain language, the report that his work was not ready in time, it having been placed at the disposal of the Commissioners more than four weeks ago, ample time, as Signor Verdi facetiously remarks, for learning the whole opera. He further states, that hearing that M. Auber had composed a march, he wrote a solo, with chorus, Signor Tambrini having offered to sing the solo. Whether, according to agreement, the choice of the subject was left to the composer, we are not informed. It is difficult to decide, therefore, where the fault lies, but we hope that, as Signor Verdi is on the spot, the affair may yet be satisfactorily settled.

A more serious matter, and one of more immediate importance, is Mr. Costa's refusal to conduct Professor Sterndale Bennett's music to words by the Poet-Laureate. We shall not enter into the question whether Mr. Costa is the "right man in the right place;" nor do we mean to inquire how far he was justified in making a private quarrel of long standing an excuse for offering a public insult to two of England's most distinguished men, and through them to the nation at large, though it appears to us that in this instance his feelings of *vendetta* seem far to outweigh his sense of justice. But, in order to ascertain whether the Commissioners are to blame or Mr. Costa, it is necessary that we should

be in possession of all the facts. Until then all judgment should be suspended. If Mr. Costa accepted the post of conductor, knowing that Professor Sterndale Bennett would be or had been asked to compose a work for the inauguration festival, he was wrong in not stating his objections at once. If, however, as is alleged, he accepted the appointment conditionally—that is to say, with the intimation that he would not conduct the Englishman's composition, then the Commissioners are seriously to blame, for having retained his services, and are aware that the Professor was requested to conduct his own composition, or to appoint somebody in his stead; but for reasons best known to himself, he politely declined to interfere in the matter. We now hear that the Commissioners, at the eleventh hour, sent the names of Mr. Alfred Mellon and Mr. Sainton to Professor Bennett, to choose from, but he again objected to take the choice upon his own responsibility. Under these circumstances, the Commissioners determined to offer the *bâton* to M. Sainton, who has accepted the honour, with the full consent of the composer, and will, we are certain, acquit himself of his arduous task to his own credit, and to the satisfaction of the public.

The following are the words of Mr. Tennyson's ode:—

"Uplift a thousand voices full and sweet,  
In this wide hall with earth's inventions stored  
And praise th' invisible universal Lord,  
Who lets once more in peace the nations meet,  
Where Science, Art, and Labour have outpoured  
Their myriad horns of plenty at our feet."

O silent father of our Kings to be,  
Mourn'd in this golden hour of jubilee,  
For this, for all, we weep our thanks to thee!

The world-compelling plan was thine,  
And, lo! the long laborious miles  
Of Palace; lo! the giant aisles,  
Rich in model and design;  
Harvest-tool and husbandry,  
Loom and wheel and engin'ry,  
Secrets of the sultry mine,  
Steel and gold, and corn and wine,  
Fabric rough or Fairy fine,  
Sunny tokens of the Line,  
Polar marvels, and a feast  
Of wonder, out of West and East,  
And shapes and hues of Part divine!  
All of beauty, all of use,  
That one fair planet can produce,  
Brought from under every star,  
Blown from over every main,  
And mixt, as life is mixt, with pain,  
The works of peace with works of war.

O ye, the wise who think, the wise who reign,  
From growing commerce loose her latest chain,  
And let the fair white-winged peacemaker fly  
To happy havens under all the sky,  
And mix the seasons and the golden hours,  
Till each man find his own in all men's good,  
And all men work in noble brotherhood,  
Breaking their mailed fleets and armed towers,  
And ruling by obeying nature's powers,  
And gathering all the fruits of peace and crown'd with all her flowers."

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES.

##### LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

GEOGRAPHICAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. Papers to be read:—1. "Surface Currents of the Bay of Bengal, in the South-West Monsoon." By Lieut. J. A. Heathcote, R.N. 2. "Notes of an Excursion to the Elburz Mountains, and Ascent of Demavend." By R.C. Watson, Esq. 3. Description of the Ruins of Cassope, in Epirus, near Previsa." By Lieut. Col. T. B. Collinson, R.E.

ARCHITECTS—9, Conduit-street, Hanover-square, at 8 P.M. "On the Jewish and Roman Architecture in Palestine, from the Earliest Period to the Time of the Crusades." By Signor Pierotti.

ANTIQUARIES—12, St. James's-square, at 7 P.M. "On the Probable Future of the Rate of Interest in this Country." By Wm. Newmarch, F.R.S.

MEDICAL—32a, George-street, Hanover-square, at 8 P.M. "Practical Observations on Diseases of the Right Orifices of the Heart." By Dr. Cockle.

TUESDAY.

CIVIL ENGINEERS—25, Great George-street, Westminster, at 8 P.M. 1. "On Reclaiming Lands from Seas and Estuaries." By James Oldham, C.E. 2. "On the Reclamation of Land from Seas and Estuaries." By J. H. Muller. 3. "On the Sea Dykes of Slesvig and Holstein; and Reclamation of Land from the Sea." By John Paton, C.E.

ZOOLOGICAL—11, Hanover-square, at 1 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

ANTIQUARIES—Somerset House, at 2 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 4 P.M. Mr. C. T. Newton, "On Ancient Art."

WEDNESDAY.

SOCIETY OF ARTS—John-street, Adelphi, at 8 P.M. "On the Silk Department of the Italian Exhibition, held at Florence in 1861." By Thomas Winkworth, Esq.

LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury-circus at 12 noon. Anniversary meeting.

THURSDAY.

ROYAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. The Croonian Lecture "On the Termination of the Nerves and Muscles." By Professor Kölliker, of Würzburg, For. Memb. R.S.

LINNÆEN—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. "On the Abnormal Habits of some Females of the genus *Orginea*." By A. T. Stainton, F.L.S.

CHEMICAL—Burlington-house, at 8 P.M.

ARTISTS & AMATEURS—Willis's Rooms, St. James's, at 8 P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 2 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.

FRIDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 8 P.M., "On the Exhibition." By R. M. Milles, Esq., M.P.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE—26, Suffolk-street, Pall Mall, East, at 4 P.M.

SATURDAY.

ASIATIC—5, New Burlington-street, at 3 P.M.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. Professor Anderson, "On Agricultural Chemistry."

THE LONDON REVIEW,  
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Mr. Briggs in Danger.

Lord Canning.

New Aspects of the Albert Memorial.

The Costs of the Windham Case.

The Cyrene Marbles in the British Museum.

Charles de Bernard.

Mr. Frith's "Railway Station."

Men of Mark—No. XXXVIII. The Right Hon. J. W. Henley, M.P.

REVIEWS:—

Mommsen's History of Rome.

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## NOTICE.

The LONDON REVIEW is now Published on SATURDAY Morning, in time for the early trains, and delivery in the country on the day of publication. It may be had at all respectable News-agents in London and the neighbourhood, by 8 A.M. on Saturday Morning.

Advertisements are received up to TWELVE o'clock on FRIDAY.

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## ADVERTISEMENTS.

HANDEL FESTIVAL, 23rd, 25th, and 27th JUNE.—VOUCHERS issued for Stalls will now be exchanged for Tickets.

Tickets for Stalls may also be had without Vouchers. Half-guinea Tickets are on Sale, but early application for these is requisite, the number being limited. They are sold in sets for the three days, at 30s. the set. Preference in selection of blocks will be given to purchasers of sets of tickets.

The Offices at the Crystal Palace and at Exeter Hall are open daily, from 10 to 5 o'clock.

HANDEL FESTIVAL, CRYSTAL PALACE.—23rd, 25th, and 27th JUNE.—The PROGRAMME OF ARRANGEMENTS, with BLOCK PLAN of Seats and view of Great Orchestra, may be had on application, personally or by post, at 2, Exeter Hall.

The Ticket Offices at the Crystal Palace and at Exeter Hall are open for the disposal of Reserved Stall Tickets daily from Ten till Five.

Post-office orders to either Ticket Office to be payable at Chief Office, London, as well as cheques, to be payable to the order of George Grove, Esq.

Stall Tickets, Two-and-a-Half Guineas the Set for the Three Days, or One Guinea for each Ticket for One Day. Stalls in each Corner Gallery, Five Guineas the Set.

Now—Blocks O and OO, P and PP, and the raised seats 8 and 8s, very eligible positions, are now on sale.

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## MEN OF MARK.

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.—Enormous success of MR. SOTHERN in the character of Lord Dundreary. BROTHER SAM'S LETTER nightly encored. The brilliant Senora Perea Nena in her renowned Spanish Ballet every evening. Mr. Buckstone as Ass Trenchard also every evening. MONDAY, APRIL 28th, and during the week, JOHN JONES. OUR AMERICAN COUSIN at 3 past 7, Perea Nena at 10, concluding with MY HUSBAND'S GHOST.

MR. & MRS. GERMAN REED, with MR. JOHN PARRY, will give their New Entertainment, THE FAMILY LEGEND, by Tom Taylor, Esq., and Mr. JOHN PARRY'S MUSICAL NARRATIVE OF A COLEEN BAWN, every evening (except Saturday), at 8; Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday afternoons at 3.—Royal Gallery of Illustration, 14, Regent-street.—Unreserved seats, 1s., 2s.; stalls, 3s.; stall (spring) chairs, 5s., secured in advance (without fee), at the Gallery, and at Messrs. CRAMER & Co.'s, 201, Regent-street.

NOTICE.—During the Easter Holidays an extra Morning Representation will be given every Tuesday at 3 o'clock.

MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS. BEETHOVEN'S NIGHT at the Monday Popular Concerts, St. James's Hall, on MONDAY EVENING NEXT, April 20.—Pianoforte, Mr. Charles Hallé; Violin, Herr Joachim; Violoncello, Signor Piatti; Vocalists, Miss Banks and Miss Lascelles. For full particulars, see Programme. Conductor, Mr. Benedict. Tickets at CHAPPELL & Co.'s, 50, New Bond-street; and at AUSTIN'S, 28, Piccadilly.

ROYAL ALHAMBRA PALACE.—THE LAST PERFORMANCE of LEOTARD will be on MONDAY and TUESDAY EVENINGS, and WEDNESDAY MORNING and EVENING, being his 300th and POSITIVELY LAST APPEARANCE.—The Morning Performance will commence at Two o'clock. Carriages at Four.

POLYTECHNIC.—ATTRACTIVE NOVELTIES.—1. Engagement of George Buckland, Esq., for his new Musical Buffo Entertainment "Blue Beard," illustrated by Dissolving Views, Shadow Pantomimic Effects, and concluding, 2, with an entirely new Scenic and splendid Illuminated and Chromatic Fountain Spectacle. 3. New and brilliantly illustrated Lecture by Professor J. H. Pepper, on "Colour in General and Coal-Tar Colours in Particular." 4. New and Magnificent Dioramic Dissolving Views of "London" in the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, Norman, Plantagenet, Tudor, Stuart, and Hanoverian Epochs, with descriptive Lecture by James D. Malcolm, Esq.—5. New Lecture by J. L. King, Esq., entitled "Curiosities of Science." 6. New and charming series of Photographic Dissolving Views (by Mr. England) of "Paris as it is." 7. New Seance by Mr. James Matthews, entitled, "Foster Out Fostered," being an exposé of the Spirit Medium.—8. The Merrimac and Monitor, the Warrior and La Gloire, illustrated in a splendid series of Dissolving Views.—9. Re-engagement of the celebrated Brousl Family for another series of their popular Concerts.—Open from 12 to 5 and 7 to 10. Admission to the whole, 1s.

M. HENRY LESLIE'S CHOIR, HANOVER-SQUARE ROOMS.—NEXT CONCERT, APRIL 30th, at Half-past Eight. Stalls, 5s.; Area, 2s. 6d. Tickets to be had at ADDISON'S, 210; CRAMER, 201; HAMMOND (late Julian's), 214, Regent-street; CHAPPELL, 50, New Bond-street; AUSTIN'S Ticket Office, Piccadilly; KEITH, PROWSE, & CO., 48, Cheapside; and at the Hanover-square Rooms.

THE "DERBY DAY," by W. P. FRITH, R.A., is NOW ON VIEW, at the Upper Gallery, 120, Pall Mall. Admission, 1s., which will also admit to the French Exhibition.

FRENCH GALLERY, 120, PALL MALL. THE NINTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF PICTURES, the contributions of artists of the French and Flemish Schools, is NOW OPEN. Admission, 1s.; Catalogues, 6d., which will also admit to view FRITH'S CELEBRATED PICTURE of the "DERBY DAY."

HOLMAN HUNT'S GREAT PICTURE, "THE FINDING OF THE SAVIOUR IN THE TEMPLE," commenced in Jerusalem in 1854, is NOW ON VIEW at the GERMAN GALLERY, 108, New Bond-street.—Admission, 1s.

## OPENS ON THE 28th INST.

SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS.—THE FIFTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION, at their Gallery, 5, Pall-mall East (close to the National Gallery).—Admittance, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d.

JOSEPH J. JENKINS, Secretary.

ROYAL BOTANIC SOCIETY, REGENTS PARK. GENERAL EXHIBITIONS OF PLANTS, FLOWERS, AND FRUIT,

Wednesdays, May 28th, June 18th, and July 9th.

AMERICAN PLANTS, Monday, June 9th.

Tickets to be obtained at the Gardens only, by Vouchers from Fellows or Members of the Society, price, on or before Saturday, May 17th, 4s.; after that day, 5s.; or on the days of exhibition, 7s. 6d. each.

Tickets will be sent by post on the receipt of proper vouchers with Post-office order payable to James De C. Sowerby, Post-office, Albany-street; or postage-stamps.

SPRING EXHIBITIONS every Wednesday to May 7th, at Two o'clock.

PRACTICAL GEOLOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.

PROFESSOR TENNANT, F.G.S., will commence a COURSE OF LECTURES on WEDNESDAY Morning, APRIL 30th, at Nine o'clock, having especial reference to the application of GEOLOGY to ENGINEERING, MINING, ARCHITECTURE, and AGRICULTURE. The Lectures will be continued on each succeeding Friday and Wednesday at the same hour. Fee—£1. 11s. 6d.

R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

N.B. The Class will be accompanied by the Professor to the British Museum, the Great Exhibition, and to places of Geological interest in the country.

PHRENOLOGY AND PHYSIOLOGY.—Messrs. FOWLER and WELLS (from America) will give THREE LECTURES in EXETER HALL, MAY 1st, 2nd, and 3rd. Open at Half-past Seven, commence at Eight, and close with public examinations.—Reserved seats, 2s.; Unreserved, 1s. They may be consulted daily at 147, Strand, W.C.

INDIA OFFICE, 21st April, 1862.  
THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR INDIA  
in Council hereby GIVES NOTICE,

That, until further notice, sealed TENDERS will be received at the Chief Cashier's Office at the Bank of England up to TWO o'clock on the first Wednesday in each month, commencing with the ensuing month of May, for BILLS of EXCHANGE, payable on demand, to be drawn on the several Governments in India, at Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, for the sum of Rupees 30,000, in each month, of which not more than Rupees 7,500,000 will be drawn on the Government of Bombay, and Rupees 2,50,000 on that of Madras.

Power is reserved to issue bills for any smaller amount than Rupees 30,000, in any one month, and to carry over the difference to the succeeding months.

No Tender is to be for a sum less than Rupees 10,000, and one eighth of a penny per Rupee is to be the smallest fraction tendered.

Each Tender must specify the rate of Exchange at which the applicant is prepared to purchase a Bill, or any number of Bills, and the lowest amount of any one Bill is to be Rupees 5,000.

The Secretary of State will not be bound to accept any Tender, and reserves the right of accepting the whole or any portion of a Tender.

In the event of two or more Tenders being equal, and the amount remaining to be allotted not being sufficient to supply both or all, the Bank will be instructed to allot rateably.

On the day following the receipt of the Tenders at the Bank, the parties will, on application at the Chief Cashier's Office, be informed whether their Tenders have or have not been accepted.

If accepted, the amount of payment must be lodged at the Bank on or before the 15th day of each month.

Those applicants whose Tenders shall have been accepted, will be furnished with a Form to be filled up with the particulars of the Bills required, and the Bills themselves, drawn in Duplicate, will be delivered on the day following the payment.

THOMAS GEORGE BARING.

GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY.—OPENING of the INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION. RETURN TICKETS to LONDON issued on WEDNESDAY, the 30th APRIL, and following days, will be available for return up to SATURDAY, the 3rd MAY.

SEYMORE CLARKE, General Manager.

King's-cross

**UNITY GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION**, Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City. Income from life premiums in 1860 £24,300 8 9. Loans granted. Good bonuses. Moderate premiums. **CORNELIUS WALFORD**, Manager.

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Apply for Forms of Proposal, or any information, to the Provincial Agents, the Booking Clerks at the Railway Stations, or to the Head Office, 64, Cornhill, London, E.C. £102,817 have been paid by this Company as compensation for Fifty-six fatal cases, and 5,041 cases of personal injury.

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EMPOWERED BY SPECIAL ACT OF PARLIAMENT, 1849. **WILLIAM J. VIAN**, Secretary. 64, Cornhill, E.C.

**STAR LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY**. Established 1843. HEAD OFFICE, 48, MOORGATE-STREET, LONDON.

Extracts from the Report for the year ending Dec. 31, 1861, and presented at the Annual Meeting, held March 3, 1862:—

During the year 1861, 1,532 Proposals were submitted to the Directors for the Assurance of £513,049; of this number, 1,115 were completed, and Policies issued for the sum of £261,960; yielding in Annual Premiums £12,868 3s. 11d., and 201 stood over for completion at the end of the year; the remainder were either declined or withdrawn.

It will be seen that the new income is larger than in any previous year of the Society's existence.

The Statement of Accounts was read, which indicated the following gratifying results:—

The Society's Income is now £100,980. 8s. 2d.

The Accumulated Fund is £414,231. 5s. 9d.

Being increased during the year by the addition of £53,701. 2s. 9d.

The following Table, in continuation of that presented in the last Annual Report, will best illustrate the progress of the Society during the last six years:—

Year.	No. of New Policies Issued.	Sums Assured thereby.	Annual Premiums therefrom.	Total Accumulations from all sources.
1856	603	204,451	£ 6,597 18 3	202,110 7 2
1857	572	221,122	7,735 9 5	238,055 1 7
1858	658	235,350	8,582 0 9	274,797 15 4
1859	812	294,495	10,172 19 6	309,444 5 2
1860	902	336,290	11,312 15 9	360,530 3 0
1861	1,115	361,960	12,868 3 11	414,231 5 9

Applications for assurance may be addressed to any of the Agents of the Society, or to

**JESSE HOBSON**, Secretary.

**ROYAL NATIONAL LIFE-BOAT INSTITUTION.** For the Preservation of Life from Shipwreck. (Incorporated by Royal Charter.)

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CHAIRMAN.—THOMAS BARING, Esq., M.P., F.R.S., V.P. DEPUTY-CHAIRMAN.—THOS. CHAPMAN, Esq., F.R.S., V.P.

#### APPEAL.

The Committee of Management have to state that, during the past two years, the Institution has incurred expenses amounting to £20,650 on various Life-boat Establishments on the Coasts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

During the past two years the Life-boats of the National Life-boat Institution have been instrumental in rescuing the crews of the following vessels:—

Schooner Ann Mitchell, of Montrose	1	Brig New Draper, of Whitehaven	8
Schooner Jane Roper, of Ulverstone	6	Schooner William, of Liverpool	5
Brig Pallas, of Shields	3	Lugger Nimrod, of Castletown	3
Ship Ann Mitchell, of Glasgow	9	Brig Providence, of Shields	8
Smack John Bull, of Yarmouth	5	Schooner Village Maid, of Fleetwood	4
Schooner Catherine, of Newry	4	Brig Mayflower, of Newcastle	8
Barque Niagara, of Shields	11	Barque Guyana, of Glasgow	19
A Barge, of Teignmouth	1	Brig Roman Empress, of Shields	10
Brig George and James, of London	8	Brig San Spiridione, of Galixide	2
Brig Zephyr, of Whitby	8	Ship Danube, of Belfast	17
Coble Honour, of Cullercoats	6	Schooner Voador du Vouga, of Vienna	8
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Every information will be readily afforded on application to the Secretary or Agents.

## EXTRACT FROM DIRECTORS' REPORT, MAY, 1861.

"THE Directors are enabled, in rendering their Annual Account, to announce that the year 1860 exhibited a continuance of the same healthy advance on which they last year had to congratulate the Proprietors, and, so far as can be foreseen, presents the elements of future prosperity.

"Proposals for the Assurance of £254,033 were made to the Office during the past year; of which amount, £167,259 were assured, producing, in New Premiums, £5,619. 0s. 8d. The Income of the Office on the 31st December last, had reached £46,562. 9s., being an increase over 1859 of £9,700.

"The Accounts, having reference to the last three years, show that the Cash Assets have exceeded the Liabilities in a gradually increasing ratio, thus:—

In 1858 the Excess was £8,269	7	4		
1859	"	12,086	9	11
1860	"	18,557	0	6

"It will be seen that the amount added to the Funds of the Company during the past year shows a surplus of a very satisfactory character, notwithstanding the payment of £14,184. 14s. 5d. for claims consequent on the Death of Members.

"Since the Directors last had the pleasure of meeting the Proprietors, the Royal Assent has been given to a Special Act of Parliament, conferring additional powers on the Company.

"As the close of the present year will bring us to the period prescribed for the Valuation of the Business, with a view to the declaration of a Bonus, the Directors very earnestly invite the co-operation of the Proprietors and all others connected with or interested in the Office to assist their efforts in making the present the most successful year of the Company's existence, in order that, individually and collectively, all interests may be advanced."

HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.

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